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Thesis

A COURSE OF STUDY IN ENGLISH FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Submitted by

Amelia Viola Gallucci

(B. S. in Ed., Fitchburg Teachers College, 1938)

In partial fulfillment of requirements for

the degree of Master of Education

1947

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A COURSE OF STUDY IN ENGLISH

FOR

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

- DEDICATION -

This Course of Study in English is sincerely dedicated to the Naugatuck Board of Education and especially to the teachers of English of the junior high level.

Amelia V. Gallucci

Amelia V. Gallucci

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CHAPTER I

THE SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER I

SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In this study it is the purpose of the writer to present a Course of Study in English for the junior high school grades.

The aims presented for English instruction may be applicable to the teaching of English on all levels, but the goals to be attained and the materials to be used will vary with different levels; however, specific attention will be given to English in the junior high school grades.

The writer has based her study upon current thought and practice expressed in publications by the National Council of Teachers of English, the National Society for the Study of Education, the National Educational Association; in professional journals; in up-to-date textbooks; and in recent courses of study.

This Course of Study in English has been organized around the experiences of young people, that is, the experiences, interests, and needs growing out of their environment. Experiences in literature, reading, listening, choric speech, composition, and mechanics will comprise the units of work in the study. Each phase of English will include:

1. objectives to be achieved
2. experiences of social importance which function

in young people's life

3. current practice in the field of English
4. suggested activities which will help young people to express themselves effectively in written and oral expression.

In the spring of 1946, a state survey of all public schools was conducted in the writer's home town, Naugatuck, Connecticut. A survey committee was appointed among the teachers of the school system to work with the Chairman, Dr. Charles Baer of the State Board of Education. Having served on the survey committee, the writer conceived the plan of proposing a practical course of study on the junior high level.

The material offered is intended merely to be illustrative; the teacher should feel free to use the units in any order she prefers and to develop additional units as they are needed.

This course of study is not final. It is an introduction to the field of English and revisions must be made from time to time as there are changes in school population, social conditions, and educational research -- all of which affect courses of study.

CHAPTER II

THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

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PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

The problem of teaching young people is probably the greatest during adolescence. It is a period of intellectual curiosity with its whims, its instability, and its social instincts. It is a period of rapid expansion, both physical and mental. In this stage young people need someone to care about them, and to respect them as human beings.

Since adolescence is a crucial period of expressive living, the teacher must be prepared to help young people to understand themselves, to discover their best powers, and to develop a sound philosophy of life.

To attain these goals young people need a sense of belonging to a group; they need the support of people to make life worthwhile; and they need the experience to develop their personality.

A program of socialized experiences and activities which students work out together, democratically, gives them an opportunity to face and recognize their own problems, to engage in experiences suited to their interests and needs, to think through their problems, and to work out plans for solving them. The teacher should serve as a guide -- helping them to identify their problems, leading them to do their best thinking and planning, finding their difficulties, and aiding

them in their solutions.

The curriculum in the junior high school should be constructed to develop social living skills through a cooperative functional program. The school should be a community in itself with teachers and pupils working our practical problems. Unfortunately, the formal classroom routine thwarted expression and stifled initiative. The pupil was forced to observe rules and regulations that were meaningless. As a result, the set-up was formal and artificial. Schools are gradually emerging from that undemocratic society; their philosophy is becoming more sound and democratic. Subject matter alone is not the aim of teaching. Developing skills and attitudes through social experiences and interests is of vital importance. In other words, facts are important only when they become part of a person's thinking and process of living.

The curriculum which helps develop the child physically, mentally, and socially will furnish the needed skills for modern living -- cooperation, tolerance, judgment, honor, reverence, and a spirit of democracy!

CHAPTER III

THE FUNCTION OF ENGLISH IN THE CURRICULUM

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THE FUNCTION OF ENGLISH IN THE CURRICULUM

The primary function of the English program is to provide for language needs of life by placing pupils in situations which appeal to language motives and drives.

Informal gatherings and activities both in and out of school afford various types of English experiences. Assembly programs, school paper, dramatizations, library reading, club meetings, and social affairs -- all are rich socialized experiences involving types of language and reading.

Perhaps no other subject gains so much as does English from the integration of the school with everyday life. The improvement of the language arts must be sought in all studies and activities throughout the day.

In the elementary school this is not difficult, since the teacher has the same pupils most of the day. She can readily correlate the language activities with the work of other subjects. In the secondary school, however, the problem of correlation is more difficult.

All teachers of all subjects are, to some extent, teachers of English. The history teacher expects oral and written reports; the science teacher requires notebooks and reports; the mathematics teacher questions for demonstrations and recitations -- all teachers should assume some responsi-

bility for the quality of English work of their students.

Through a cooperative integrated program between teachers and students, English can become a series of vital dynamic experiences which will serve to cultivate in the pupil an appreciation of the best things in literature, art, and related subjects; to increase his power to express himself both in speech and in writing; and to impress on his mind a knowledge of certain essentials regarding the mother tongue. The teacher should judge the success of her teaching in terms of the pupil's ability to use language and not upon his facility in ticketing tenses or naming the parts of speech.[1]

What, then, are the aims for English instruction in the American schools? The National Council of Teachers of English lists the following:[2]

1. Language is a basic instrument in the maintenance of democratic way of life.
2. Increasingly free and effective interchange of ideas is vital to life in a democracy.
3. Language study in the schools must be based on the language needs of living.

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[1] Dora V. Smith, The Development of a Modern Program in English, Ninth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1936, p. 167.

[2] Dora V. Smith, Basic Aims for English in American Schools, Monograph No. 3, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1934, pp. 1-16.

4. Language ability expands with the individual's experience.

5. English enriches personal living and deepens understanding of social relationships.

6. English uses literature of both past and present to illumine the contemporary scene.

7. Among the nations represented in the program in literature, America should receive major emphasis.

8. A study of the motion picture and radio is indispensable in the English program.

9. The goals of instruction in English are, in the main, the same for all young people, but the heights to be attained in achieving any one of them and the materials used for the purpose will vary with individual need.

10. The development of social understanding through literature requires reading materials within the comprehension, the social intelligence, and the emotional range of the pupils whose lives they are expected to influence.

11. English pervades the life and work of the school.

12. English enriches personality by providing experience of intrinsic worth for the individual.

13. Teachers with specialized training are needed for effective instruction in language arts.

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE EXPERIENCES

CHAPTER IV

LITERATURE EXPERIENCES

Literature is concerned with recreational reading which leads to enrichment of experiences and stimulation of interest through the development of desirable reading habits. In recreational reading pupil's attitude is centered on pleasure and enjoyment rather than information.

It is more important to develop in the pupil ability to read with interest, understanding, and appreciation than to seek information. To develop tastes and desires that lead to wider and richer reading -- this is the aim of literature.

The method of teaching literature will differ in degree rather than in procedure, since interests and experiences vary little during junior high school years.

An adequate supply of reading material is a requisite to a successful program in literature. Classroom libraries as well as central libraries with few copies of many books offer opportunity for personal enrichment in literature.

Since not all students have the same interests and needs, through personal conference the teacher can learn the individual differences of her students, and offer intelligent guidance. The student should feel free to discuss his readings with the teacher and during class discussions. Charts showing the progress of individuals is a technique in

motivating recreational reading.

The literature program suggested is based upon selections from short stories, poetry, biographical selections, essays, and plays, gathered from up-to-date textbooks, reading lists, and courses of study.[1]

UNIT I. SHORT STORY

Since the span of interest of the average junior high school student is comparatively short, the study of the short story is preferable to the study of the full-length book. However, reading full-length stories for enjoyment and pleasure is encouraged. Myths, fairy tales, and legendary stories might be included with the short story.

Emphasis should be placed on the action of the story, its characters, and its effect upon the reader rather than on factual material. During these years the pupil's interest is still in the story -- the action between characters which leads to a dramatic and satisfactory conclusion.

Activities:

1. Discussion of short story
2. Discussion of author's style
    a. O. Henry -- surprise ending

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[1] Listed in Appendix

b. R. L. Stevenson -- "real" people

c. E. A. Poe -- choice of words

d. F. Stockton -- humor

3. Comparison between short story and one-act play
4. Studying a phase of author's life
5. Reading together the beginning of the story to get the feel, that is, the spirit or purpose
6. Silent reading followed by discussion, questions, and debates
7. Oral reading by teacher or student of outstanding passages -- excitement, description, or impression
8. Dramatization of incidents
9. Pantomimes
10. Scrapbooks of scenes from short stories
11. Writing radio or stage adaptation for programs. (Secure from the U. S. Department of Education, Washington, D. C., or from commercial sponsors, samples of radio adaptation of famous short stories.)

Suggested Program by Grades:

Grade VII

Short Story

Derieux The Blind Setter

Hawthorne	Tales from a Grandfather's Chair
Irving	Rip Van Winkle
O. Henry	The Ransom of Red Chief
Tarkington	Penrod's Busy Day
Twain	How Tom Sawyer Whitewashed the Fence
Wiggin	The Bird's Christmas Carol

Longer Stories

Alcott	Little Women; Little Men
Defoe	Robinson Crusoe
Dickens	A Christmas Carol
Dodge	Hans Brinker
Spyri	Heidi
Stevenson	Treasure Island
Tarkington	Penrod
Twain	The Prince and the Pauper

Grade VIII

Short Story

Grenfell	Adrift on an Icepan
Hale	The Man Without a Country
Irving	The Legend of Sleepy Hollow
Kipling	Moti Guj, Mutineer

McSpadden	Famous Dogs in Fiction
Persky	Adventures in Sports
Saxe	The Blind Men and the Elephant
Stockton	The Lady or the Tiger
Twain	The Celebrated Jumping Frog
Weatherly	A Bird in the Hand
White	Blazed Trail Stories
Wilkins-Freeman	The Revolt of Mother

Longer Stories

Dana	Two Years Before the Mast
James	Smoky
Johnson	Buffalo Bill
London	The Call of the Wild
O'Brien	Silver Chief
Stevenson	The Black Arrow

Grade IX

Short Story

Bentham	Bad Influence
Compton-Brown	The Open Road
Doyle	Adventures of Sherlock Holmes
Hawthorne	Mr. Higginbotham's Catastrophe
Kipling	All the Mowgli Stories

Marshall	The Elephant Remembers
Maule	Personality Counts at Least Half
De Maupassant	The Necklace
Paine	The Freshman Fullback
Poe	The Gold Bug
Post	Five Thousand Dollars Reward
Thomas	The March of the Big Knives

Longer Stories

Cooper	The Last of the Mohicans
Dickens	David Copperfield
Kipling	Captains Courageous
Melville	Moby Dick
Scott	Ivanhoe
Twain	A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court

UNIT II. POETRY

The primary objective in the study of peotry is to enjoy peoms through sharing and participating in expressions of beauty in man and nature:

1. to share in patriotism
2. to enjoy human relationships
3. to share the poet's thoughts and feelings

4. to share experiences of the poet
5. to enjoy rhythm in poetry
6. to enjoy imagery in poetry
7. to enjoy humor in poetry
8. to participate against social barriers
9. to appreciate human progress
10. to delight in human experiences

From poetry is gained a means of self-expression and a love and appreciation of and responsiveness to beauty, courage, love, and patriotism in mankind.

So often students develop a distaste for poetry because its aim or objective is meaningless, that is, they are asked to memorize a poem as an end in itself. Poems with reading difficulties should be studied in class with the teacher. The teacher should show the value of rhythm by allowing the class to read in unison. An excellent activity to motivate the teaching of poetry is through <u>choral reading</u>.[1]

<u>Activities</u>:

1. Choral Reading
2. Memorizing favorite lines or stanzas
3. Poetry notebooks including:
    a. short biography of poet

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[1] Refer to Chapter VI, Speech Experiences, Unit 6, <u>Choral Reading</u>

b. favorite lines or poems illustrated

c. original poems

4. Ballads:

a. explain use of ballad in olden days

b. compare with today

c. read Robin Hood and Little John and Whoopee Ti Yi Yo (modern)

d. obtain suggestions from the class of stories that might be converted into ballads:

stories from newspaper, books, radio

e. play victrola records of ballads

f. recite and sing ballads

g. chant in unison to emphasize rhythm; group students according to vocal tones

5. Reading of poem by teacher while students listen:

a. Does the title fit the poem?

b. Does poem recall any experience you have had?

c. What do you learn of poet's life?

d. Did you smell, hear, or see anything while listening?

e. What lines contain the central thought?

f. Are there any famous lines in the poem?

g. Did you like the poem? Why?

6. Teaching figures of speech for appreciation of interesting word effects rather than technical knowledge

7. Encouraging reading of good verse appearing in magazines, newspapers and over the radio

8. Writing original verse

Limericks[1]

There once lived a man named Astronndit
Who was quite large around it.
While eating his stew,
He lost his shoe --
Now where do you think he found it?

* * *

There once lived a lady named Freek
Who had an enormous beak.
Her beak so they say,
Once got in her way --
Now Freek's beak is sneaking a streak!

* * *

There was a young girl from Fall River,
Who went to the store for some liver.
But she took all the dough,
And went to the show --
Now her mother would never forgive her!

* * *

[1] Written by the writer's eighth grade students, 1946.

You're a good tax dodger you think,
You pay your taxes with a wink.
But you'll be surprised,
One morning when you rise --
And find you are in the Klink!

* * *

Suggested Program by Grades:

Grade VII

Bates	America the Beautiful
Browning	The Pied Piper of Hamelin
Bryant	Robert of Lincoln
Carroll	The Walrus and the Carpenter
Cooke	How Did You Die?
Emerson	A Fable
Frost	The Runaway
Garrison	April
Guest	A Boy and His Dog
Holmes	How the Old Horse Won the Bet
Hunt	Abou Ben Adhem
Key	The Star Spangled Banner
Kilmer	The House with Nobody in It
Le Gallienne	I Meant to Do My Work Today
Lear	Limericks
Longfellow	Paul Revere's Ride

Miller	Columbus
Payne	Home Sweet Home
Tennyson	Charge of the Light Brigade
Thaxter	The Sandpiper
Trowbridge	Darius Green and His Flying Machine
Wells	How to Tell Wild Animals
Whittier	The Barefoot Boy
Wordsworth	The Daffodils

Narrative Poems

Longfellow	The Courtship of Miles Standish; Hiawatha

Grade VIII

Bennett	The Flag Goes By
Burns	A Red Red Rose
Carman	The Vagabond Song
Guest	It Couldn't Be Done
Guiterman	Strictly Germ-Proof
Hogg	A Boy's Song
Holmes	Old Ironsides
Kilmer	Trees
Kipling	If
Leigh	The Twins

Lomax	The Cowboy's Dream
Longfellow	The Builders
Lowell	A Day in June
Macauley	Horatius at the Bridge
Masefield	Sea Fever
McCrae	In Flanders Fields
Morgan	Work: A Song of Triumph
Noyes	The Highwayman
Scott	Lochinvar
Sherman	Golden Rod
Thayer	Casey at the Bat
Van Dyke	America for Me
Whitman	O Captain! My Captain!

Narrative Poems

Longfellow	Evangeline
Tennyson	Enoch Arden
Whittier	Snowbound

Grade IX

Browning	Incident of the French Camp
Burnet	The Road to Vagabondia
Cooney	Lindbergh
Emerson	Forbearance
Foss	The House by the Side of the Road

Frost	The Birches
Gould	Wander-Thirst
Guest	Just a Job
Hart	The Reveille
Henley	Invictus
Holland	God Give Us Men
Holmes	The Chambered Nautilus
Kilmer	Roofs
Kipling	Gunga Din
Letts	The Spires of Oxford
Lindsay	Abraham Lincoln Walks at Midnight
Markham	The Day and the Work
Morley	Song for a Little House
Poe	The Raven
Rice	The Chant of the Colorado
Riley	The Old Swimmin' Hole
Sandburg	Fog
Stevenson	Requiem
St. Vincent Millay	Recuerdo
Teasdale	Barter

Narrative Poems

Coleridge	The Rime of the Ancient Mariner

Scott	The Lady of the Lake

UNIT III. BIOGRAPHICAL SELECTIONS

Students of junior high school thoroughly enjoy and appreciate short biographies of people worth knowing. The main goal in teaching this phase of literature is to awaken interests and to inspire admiration for the accomplishments of these heroes.

Activities:

1. Emphasis on qualities that contributed to person's greatness
2. Discussion of accomplishments to develop an understanding and sympathy for their problems
3. Exhibits of biographies to keep reading alive (Many companies furnish exhibits free of charge.)
4. Correlation with composition by writing summaries and reports of biographies
5. Dramatization of characters

Suggested Program by Grades:

Grade VII

Aldrich	The Story of a Bad Boy
Barrett	Marooned

Custer	Boots and Saddles
Dodge	Hans Brinker
Lewis	Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze
Lewis	Ho-ming, Girl of New China
Nicolay	A President's Childhood
Tietjens	Boy of the Desert
Twain	Adventures of Tom Sawyer
Yezierska	How I Found America

Grade VIII

Cody	The Adventures of Buffalo Bill
Golding	Story of David Livingstone
Green	Dick Byrd, An Explorer
Hagedorn	Lindbergh
Hagedorn	Boys' Life of Theodore Roosevelt
Hill	On the Trail of Grant and Lee
Jones	Thomas A Edison
Keller	The Story of My Life
Richards	Florence Nightingale
Scudder	Life of Washington
Stefanson	Northward Ho!
Tarbell	Boy Scout's Life of Lincoln
White	Daniel Boone

Grade IX

Breshkovsky	Little Grandmother of the Russian Revolution
Brown	Boyhood of Edward MacDowell
de Kruif	Microbe Hunters
Garland	Son of the Middle Border
Hagedorn	Edith Cavell
James	Lone Cowboy, My Life Story
Law	Wilbur and Orville Wright
Lindbergh	We
Riis	The Making of an American
Sandburg	Abe Lincoln Grows Up
Thomas	Modern Buckaneers
Washington	Up from Slavery

UNIT IV. ESSAYS

Essays are well adapted to the junior high school since they are short and deal with experiences interesting to the students -- mainly personal experiences and judgments frequently in the form of letters, speeches, interviews, and descriptions.

Activities:

1. Discussion of their own experiences or impressions

2. Writing an appreciation of a friend
3. Writing special reports on discoveries and inventions mentioned in essays
4. Exhibition of pictures collected by the class to illustrate an essay
5. Delivering oral reports on famous persons or places mentioned in essays
6. Making a list of words or phrases in essays that are unusual
7. Making use of maps and globes to help visualize places mentioned in essays

Suggested Program by Grades

Grade VII

Collins	Building a Skyscraper
Crane	Boy Wanted
Hagedorn	You Are the Hope of the World
Hall	Romance of the Steel Mills
Lamb	Roast Pig
Lane	Makers of the Flag
Lucas	Our Feathered Friends
Lucas	The Listener
Page	The American's Creed
Parkman	The Heroine
Roosevelt	Hunting the Grizzly Bear

Roosevelt	Letters to His Children

Grade VIII

Fabre	My Cats
Hagedorn	Lindbergh
Hugo	The Combat with the Octopus
Lincoln	Gettysburg Address
Morley	The Apple That No One Ate
Parkman	Charles Goodyear
Pierce	Forest Fires
Roosevelt	The American Boy
Stockton	A Piece of Red Calico
Twain	New England Weather
Warner	How I Killed a Bear

Grade IX

Benchley	Tortures of Week-End Visiting
Brooks	At a Toy Shop Window
Burroughs	Buds and Bees
Bushly	The Dance of the Snake
Crowell	Boggs on Dogs
Eaton	The Bluest Lake in the World
Franklin	The Way to Wealth
Grayson	Argument With a Millionaire
Lamb	Dissertation on Roast Pig

Leacock	The Dentist and the Gas
Morley	The Century
Stevens	Paul Bunyan
Stevenson	A Night Among the Pines

UNIT V. PLAYS

To enjoy plays in which suspense and character interest are both strong is the primary objective in the study of plays.[1] Plays should not be presented as an end in itself; they should be read and dramatized with understanding and imagination to note the relationship between character and action.

Activities:

1. Discussion of early type of plays
   a. use of men for women's parts
   b. lack of stage properties and backgrounds
2. Discussion of difference between play and story
3. Emphasis on characters and action
4. Reading play rapidly for thought (plot)

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[1] W. Wilbur Hatfield, An Experience Curriculum in English, Monograph No. 4, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 51.

5. Changing a short story to a play
6. Writing an original play
7. Planning a production
    a. sketches of costumes and stage settings
    b. characters and scenes
    c. stage effects
    d. properties
8. Comparing plays as to theme, characters, and historical background
9. Making miniature stage, using paper doll with costumes

Suggested Program by Grades

Grade VII

Coppee	Violin Maker of Cremona
Field	Three Pills in a Bottle
Mackay	The Snow Witch
Sanders	Knave of Hearts

Grade VIII

Dunsany	The Evil Kettle
Lady Dell	The Emperor's New Clothes
Monkhouse	The Gran Chan's Diamond
Sanders	Patch-work Quilt

Shakespeare	Mid-summer Night's Dream

Grade IX

Drinkwater	Abraham Lincoln
Dunsany	The Lost Silk Hat
Gale	Not Quite Such a Goose
Knowles	William Tell
Lady Gregory	Spreading the News
Peabody	The Piper
Pillot	Two Crooks and a Lady
Saunders	Figureheads
Shakespeare	The Merchant of Venice

UNIT VI. RADIO

"Listening to the radio" has become a popular activity among the American people -- especially among the young people. The radio has invaded the classroom and has become a vital instrument in motivating the English program.

Objectives:[1]

1. In direct relation to the English classrooms.
    a. Esthetic and Literary to correlate

[1] Ibid., pp. 65-66

literature experiences in radio programs with those present in the work in English.

b. Expressional - to utilize opportunities for critical discussion and writing, as part of the training in expression given in English.

c. Expressional - to compose sketches, addresses, interviews, and the like as if for radio broadcasting and the actual use of these wherever possible, as training in writing and delivery -- all from carefully selected models.

d. Linguistic - to make use of opportunities for the study of language, as occurring

(1) in radio discussion of usage and related topics

(2) in a study of the technique of broadcasting and the diction of announcers and speakers, in order to raise standards of speech and

improve spoken English

e. Literary and Linguistic - to increase appreciation of the spoken word and to stress the aural values of verse as given over the air.

2. In General Education:

a. Civic - to give young people help in making worthy use of leisure time

b. Civic - to establish standards of taste to be used in judging radio programs, such standards to be differentiated to suit different kinds of programs

c. Civic - to develop ability to follow and to examine critically the lectures, discussions, and advertising statements of radio programs, as a means of creating intelligent skepticism and the power to resist propaganda

d. Esthetic - to increase desirable character ideals and attitudes, as a reflex of radio programs

e. Esthetic - to increase appreciation of the art of radio

f. Informational - to provide general information

a. correlation with history, civics, economics, science, art, music, foreign languages, etc.

UNIT VII. MOTION PICTURES

The motion picture is a powerful force which influences the lives of young people for good or for evil. Since attending the movies is a significant activity among young people, it should be the school's problem to offer guidance in judging motion pictures.

In the monograph published by the National Council of Teachers of English,[1] the study reports that photoplay appreciation can be taught successfully to American boys and girls in grades nine through twelve, provided the unit includes discussion of not less than seven current photoplays and devotes approximately two class periods to each photoplay. It also adds that there is a close relationship between the

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[1] William Lewin, Photoplay Appreciation in American High Schools, National Council of Teachers of English, Monograph No. 3, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1934, pp. 94-95

outside reading habits of junior and senior high school students and their attendance at motion pictures:

1. A majority of pupils are stimulated to read books as a result of having enjoyed screen versions of those books.
2. A majority of pupils tend to select photoplays they know to be based on books they have enjoyed reading.

As a result of classroom discussion and instruction, the book-film relationship becomes more significant.

The committee on photoplay appreciation makes the following recommendations:[1]

1. That units of instruction in photoplay appreciation be introduced into the nation's schools, with a view to improving popular standards of taste and judgment in relation to photoplays by mass education.
2. That experimentation be initiated with a view to formulating children's criteria, in harmony with those of English teachers, for the selection and evaluation of photoplays.
3. That courses in methods of teaching photoplay appreciation be included in the curricula of

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[1] Ibid., p. 96

colleges of education, with a view to setting forth the most successful methodologies that have been developed through experimentation.

4. That a national committee of English teachers preview selected current photoplays, with a view to suggesting which productions are worthy of consideration in classroom.
5. That the publication of study-guides to selected current photoplays be developed.

The use of rating-scales for judging motion pictures is a helpful teaching device. They range from the simplest to the most complex.[1] For grades seven and eight the rating-scale teaches pupils to rate motion pictures on seven points:

1. Main Idea
2. Story
3. Characters
4. Photography
5. Value to Humanity
6. Acting
7. Enjoyment

UNIT VIII. NAUGATUCK LITERATURE[2]

Engelhardt, Fred	Fulling Mill Brook	1937

[1] Ibid., p. 90

[2] This material is available at the Naugatuck Public Library

Lines, Edwin S.	Personal Recollections of Naugatuck	1926
Prichard, Sarah J.	A Day and a Night in the Old Porter House	1898
Regli, Adolph C.	Rubber's Goodyear	1941
Ward, William	The Early Schools of Naugatuck	1906
Warren, Israel P.	Chauncey Judd	1874

CHAPTER V

READING EXPERIENCES

CHAPTER V

READING EXPERIENCES

There are two major types of reading:

1. work-type, reading for information
2. recreation-type, reading for enjoyment

The work-type reading is presented under the Reading chapter and the recreation-type reading under the Literature chapter. However, one does not preclude the other. Both are separated to emphasize the fact that the reader's primary purpose varies in the two situations.

Reading is a tool subject. It calls attention to the fact that definite skills and techniques are required for reading literature. In other words, the foundation of all teaching of literature is the development of correct reading habits, not memorization of content.

The teaching of reading should continue through the junior and senior high school. Many pupils enter secondary schools with reading levels below normal. It is the teacher's problem to discover the weaknesses and needs of the child through a diagnostic testing program, then to build the reading program based upon the student's needs, interests, and abilities.[1]

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[1] Marquis E. Shattuck, The Development of a Modern Program in English, Ninth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association, 1936, p. 45.

Reading of newspapers and magazines has become an important activity in modern life. It offers many opportunities to the student who wishes to take advantage of his leisure time to broaden his interests and to increase the scope of his knowledge.

Newspaper and magazine articles are of value not only for the information they present but also for their challenge in stimulating thought and action.

The English program should include discussions of magazine and newspaper articles; this is considered an effective means of guiding students in their choice or reading. Students should be encouraged to collect magazines and newspapers for future reference. Writing a reference card for each and arranging in alphabetical order offers good practice in starting a library card file for classroom use.

Magazines for Junior High Students

American Boy	Popular Mechanics
American Girl	Popular Science
Scholastic	Aviation
Open Road for Boys	School Musician
Young America	Etude
St. Nicholas	Nature
Child Life	National Geographic
Boys' Life	Hygeia

The work-type or informational reading should aim:

1. to acquire information
2. to follow directions
3. to understand statements
4. to form opinions
5. to evaluate material
6. to compare one's opinion with others
7. to reach a conclusion
8. to discover new problems
9. to discover relationships
10. to consult card catalogue

Outcomes for Work-Type Reading in Junior High School

1. Ability to locate information accurately
    a. index, table of contents
    b. maps, graphs, pictures
    c. encyclopedia, yearbook, dictionary
    d. magazines, newspapers
    c. library card files
2. Ability to comprehend
    a. recall definite information
    b. follow directions
3. Ability to remember what is read
    a. determine what should be remembered
    b. distinguish between direct and implied detail

4. Ability to organize material
    a. summarize
    b. note-taking
    c. outline
5. Ability to evaluate -- interpret and draw conclusions
6. Ability to skim
    a. get general idea
7. Ability to develop a meaningful vocabulary -- recognize new words through meaning of context

Suggestions for the Teacher:

1. Keep material on child's level.
2. Consider the child's needs, interests, and abilities.
3. Keep in mind definite objective in each assignment. Never give a chapter to read as an assignment.
4. Choose material which is neither too difficult nor too easy -- it should be challenging.
5. Vary reading activities and reading materials.
6. Explain to some extent reasons for work which is acquired.
7. Give special instruction to the group needed.
8. Evaluate with formal and informal tests frequently.
9. Examine results of tests and base remedial work upon these needs.

10. Encourage extensive reading for enrichment.
11. Offer worthwhile help in reading newspapers.
12. List magazines and newspapers for reference.

As a tool activity, reading calls attention to the fact that there are certain techniques and abilities for reading and interpreting literature.[1] Activities which develop skills in reading, thus laying the foundation for enjoyment of literature are:

1. Keeping charts showing progress in reading
2. Writing questions on selection read
3. Keeping list of new words mastered
4. Using library, dictionary, and reference books
5. Interpreting pictures and cartoons in answer to questions
6. Substituting title for section read
7. Preparing topics for a debate
8. Expressing idea of story in a paragraph
9. Discussion of valuable books
10. Comparing opinions of different authors
11. Reading or interpreting graphs, charts, and maps
12. Reading to find key sentence or paragraph
13. Preparing to read a given section

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[1] Verna White and J. B. Enochs, "Testing the Reading and Interpretation of Literature," The English Journal, 33:171-177, April, 1944.

14. Reading and interpreting newspaper headlines

UNIT I. DISCURSIVE READING[1]

Activities:

1. Reading sports page including summaries of school's participation in basketball, football, or baseball
2. Interpreting the head-lines as a lead to news articles
3. Scanning the editorial to gain opinions of others
4. Evaluating ideas, principles, and opinions of others
5. Reading discussions in magazines to draw conclusions
6. Browsing through magazines for recreation

UNIT II. PROBLEM SOLVING

Activities:

1. Interpreting pictures or cartoons in answer to a question

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[1] W. Wilbur Hatfield, An Experience Curriculum in English, Monograph No. 4, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 101

2. Reading or interpreting graphs, maps, charts, and guides
3. Following directions in making a miniature stage for a marionette show
4. Analyzing the contents of a telegram as to message and fee charges
5. Arranging reference cards in proper order to be filed
6. Planning for a class carnival
7. Organizing a school newspaper
8. Seeking advice for a change in one's program of studies
9. Planning for a class meeting
10. Drawing up a simple code to govern class meetings

UNIT III. READING FOR REPORTS

Activities:

1. Reporting on the ballad, a poet, an author, or any phase of English work that merits further research
2. Reporting on the town of Naugatuck, America's first rubber town
    a. story of Old Salem
    b. historic location

c. chief industries

(1) U. S. Rubber Company

(2) Eastern Malleable Iron Co.

(3) Peter Paul, Inc.

(4) Naugatuck Glass Company

(5) Risdon Manufacturing Company

d. school system

(1) one high school

(2) six elementary schools

(3) two parochial schools

e. public libraries

(1) one adult

(2) one children

f. recreation

(1) two motion picture theaters

(2) recreational field

(3) golf course

(4) Y. M. C. A.

g. "Naugatuck Daily News"

(1) published by Rudolph Hennick

(2) managed by Joseph Donahue

h. churches of all denominations

3. Reporting on Naugatuck's industries

a. "The Romance of Rubber" [1]

(1) A peep into the past

(2) Charles Goodyear

(3) Henry Wickham

(4) Visiting a modern rubber plantation

(5) Chemistry makes rubber serve us

(6) Preparing dry rubber

(7) Preparing liquid rubber

(8) Rubber serves industry

(9) Rubber in home and on farm

(10) Rubber serves the sick

(11) Rubber helps protect

(12) You ride on rubber

(13) You walk on rubber

(14) You sleep and sit on rubber

(15) You wear rubber

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[1] The Romance of Rubber published by United States Rubber Company, Rockefeller Center, 1230 Sixth Avenue, New York City, 1941.

(16) Story of a great company

(17) Synthetic rubber

b. The story of a coconut candy bar[1]

(1) the coconut

(2) how coconuts grow

(3) how coconuts were transplanted

(4) how coconuts are harvested

(5) how coconuts are sent to market

(6) how coconuts are distributed

(7) how the meat is removed from the shell of the coconut

(8) how shredded coconut is made

c. The story of chewing gum

(1) history of chewing gum

(2) chicle gathering

(3) modern chewing gum

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[1] Literature received from the Peter Paul, Inc., Naugatuck, Connecticut.

(4) activated charcoal gum

d. The story of a safety pin

e. The story of glass products

f. The story of iron castings

4. Reporting on the early settlers of Naugatuck
5. Comparing the population back in 1847 with today's
6. Reporting on the philanthropists of Naugatuck
7. Reporting on the form of government
8. Reporting on the incorporation of Naugatuck as a borough
9. Reporting on the fire and police departments

CHAPTER VI

COMPOSITION EXPERIENCES

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COMPOSITION EXPERIENCES

The aim of teaching oral and written composition is to enable the pupil to communicate his ideas to others with an increasing correctness and effectiveness as he grows into maturity.

Objectives of oral composition:[1]

1. to entertain and improve one's social relations
2. to instruct, to plan, and to make decisions
3. to persuade or to influence and to report on activities
4. to spread news to carry on business

Objectives of written composition:[2]

1. to record for historical purposes
2. to transmit information
3. to reach a wider audience
4. to make communication more formal and accurate
5. to guide one's speech

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[1] William H. Burton, The Supervision of Elementary Subjects, Chapter VI. "The Supervision of Language" by Walter Barnes, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1929, p. 260

[2] Loc. cit.

6. to present material for class study
7. to spread news

These objectives are based upon activities of social importance. Research studies reveal the following language experiences are outcomes of social situations:[1]

1. Conversation
2. Discussion
3. Story-telling
4. Explaining
5. Debating
6. Speech making
7. Letter writing
8. Making oral and written reports

A wise teacher will utilize these experiences taking into consideration the pupil's needs and interests, motivating the work by correlating it with in-school and out-of-school interests.

Basic principles in composition:

1. Pupils should be encouraged to want to talk and write.
2. Growth in composition is slow and requires proper direction, drill, testing, correcting, and retesting.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 240-242.

3. Best topic is one within pupil's own experience.
4. Provisions should be made for teaching pupil:
    a. to confine his topic to one he can handle
    b. to decide upon a title on topic that will suit the talk or theme
    c. to think out a good beginning sentence
    d. to develop the theme
    e. to prepare a closing sentence to round out the whole talk or theme
    f. to confine himself to clear cut sentences having one main thought
5. The whole composition should be planned to bring about unity of thought, coherence of parts, and emphasis of ideas.
6. Variety in sentence structure and paragraph arrangement is necessary.
7. Use of illustrations and comparisons will aid in all forms of expression.
8. Neat work -- well written and well-planned adds to the appearance.
9. Suggestions and criticisms should be

offered in a spirit of helpfulness.

A course of study suggestive of these aims and objectives will lead the student to develop attitudes, skills, and abilities. "We shall never thoroughly enrich our composition teaching until we accept the principle that the development of attitudes is as necessary as the development of an accurate comprehension of the varied world which we are to describe and discuss".[1]

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[1] Henry Suzzallo in Preface to English Composition As a Social Problem, S. A. Leonard, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1917

WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Correct writing is a habit which is developed through functional writing experiences. The more experience a pupil has in writing and speaking, the more effective and correct will be his work. Desirable activities will help pupils to observe, to investigate, to report, to imagine, to understand, and to reason.

To accomplish this purpose there is no one definite method since the needs, abilities, and interests of pupils vary. All pupils should not be required to write on same topic; their needs, abilities, and interests should be considered. Students should be exposed to a rich diet and encouraged to utilize their abilities. The unit on Creative Writing is intended for enriching the English program. However, the teacher should observe certain principles:

1. Composition work should grow out of actual situations arising in school, home, and community.
2. It should be based upon genuine pupil interests.
3. Composition should make use of the subject matter of all departments of the school.
4. It should be closely related to the extra-curricular activities of the

school.[1]

Often written composition is an outgrowth of an experience in oral composition, wherein pupils are asked to reproduce in writing what they first have given orally. Thus part of the problem of what to write is solved, and pupils can concentrate on mechanics of transferring thought to paper. This is a challenge to their written power.

Objectives of Written Composition:

1. to develop the ability to express one's thoughts accurately and clearly in sentences, paragraphs, and themes
2. to enrich the power of words through the expression of ideas and experiences
3. to promote the ability to organize a correct outline for any well-written article
4. to eradicate from one's usage, errors in spelling, punctuation, grammar capitalization, and vocabulary

In a study on written composition Catherine McDonald[2]

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[1] Dora V. Smith, Instruction in English, Report of National Survey of Secondary Schools, Bulletin No. 17, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, February, 1933, p. 26

[2] Catherine B. McDonald, Student Preferences in Written Composition Assignments in Seventh, Eighth, and Ninth Grades, Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boston University, Boston, 1945

Boston University
School of Education
Library

discovered the order of preference of students for assignments to be:

1. Letter
2. Outline
3. Paragraph
4. Play
5. Report
6. Article

There was no statistical significance in junior high preference in written composition. Topics dealing with personal experiences and interests rated highest, such as hobby, aviation, radio, pioneering, and camping. Friendly letters were preferred over other kinds of letters.

Junior high compositions should be brief and frequent. A paragraph of six or eight lines correct in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and usage is preferable to many pages of rambling material.

The writing of themes in the early stages should be under the guidance of the teacher. Many persistent errors may be corrected during class period while the students are writing. This plan of directed study will benefit the pupil in establishing good habits of writing.

Skill in written composition is a steady growth. It is the problem of every English teacher to develop a sentence sense and paragraph sense through constant drill and repetition.

Composition and Its Essentials - C U E [1]

Concepts of the three important principles in writing a theme should be developed through its application of:

1. Coherence

   Are there any gaps in the expression of thought?

   Is there a lack of growth?

   Do the parts stick together?

2. Unity

   Are there any unnecessary elements?

   Do all these parts in combining say but one main thing?

3. Emphasis

   Are the parts so apportioned and so placed as to make the strongest appeal?

In evaluating written composition themes the teacher should consider two phases of the theme:

1. Content or story value which includes the individual's style of expression.
2. Mechanics or form value which includes spelling, grammar, punctuation, and capitalization.

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[1] Charles S. Thomas, The Teaching of English in the Secondary School, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1927, p. 112

Two grades should be recorded on the themes, for instance, C/A

C - Content

A - Mechanics

In addition to this grading, a written comment by the teacher often encourages the pupil to do better work.

Objective Measurement of Written Themes

Teachers' marks in written compositions have not been sufficiently reliable; some have been mere guesses -- some good, some poor. These subjective factors have lowered the reliability of teachers' marks.

Out of these problems there arose a movement for more objective measuring of themes. It took the form of composition scales. "A composition scale is a series of student themes, some ten to twenty in number ranged in order (or steps) from low to high on the basis of actual accomplishment without reference to any special school year."[1]

A numerical value has been assigned to each theme representing a step in the scale. These values have been determined by expert judges. The teacher scores a pupil's theme by comparing it with those on the scale and giving it the same grade as the one on the specimen composition, which it most

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[1] Edward H. Webster and Dora V. Smith, Teaching English in the Junior High School, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1927, p. 263

nearly resembles.

Dr. Rice[1] was the first to attempt a composition scale. His experiment made teachers conscious of their ratings and there soon developed a series of composition scales. The following are most common:

Ballou, F. W., "Harvard Newton Composition Scales," Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts

Hillegas, Milo B., "A Scale for the Measurement of Quality in English Composition by Young People," Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Hudelson, Earl, "Hudelson English Composition Scale," World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York

Lewis, E. E., "Scales for Measuring Special Types of English Composition," Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York

Thorndike, F. L., "Thorndike Extension of the Hillegas Scale," Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Van Wagenen, M. J., "Minnesota English Composition Scales," College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Willing, M. H., "Willing Scale for Measuring Written Composition," Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois

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[1] Earl Hudelson, English Composition, Its Aims, Methods, and Measurement, Part I., National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1923, pp. 42-43

Characteristics and Procedure

In the seventh grade stress should be placed on the ability:

1. to write clear complete sentence
2. to vary the simple sentence
3. to use correct structure
4. to use correct punctuation
5. to use correct usage

In the eighth grade continued stress should be placed on the simple sentence advancing to compound and complex sentences. Progress should be made from the sentence structure to the paragraph structure.

In the ninth grade extensive drill, application, and enrichment of the sentence should be stressed with paragraph organization as a unit.

By the end of the junior high school years, pupils will have been exposed to the techniques and skills of writing, through the development of concepts and understandings of the sentence and paragraph, not as an end in itself but as a means to better compositions. As his experience widens, his thinking will become more complex and his writing will progress from simple to compound sentences.

In the outline that follows, the suggested composition units are not divided into minimums for each year of the junior high school; it is planned so that the teacher may return to various phases throughout the junior high school, placing

emphasis where it is most needed by her class.

WRITING EXPERIENCES

UNIT I. SOCIAL LETTERS

Techniques Desirable in Writing Social Letters[1]

Social Techniques:

1. To adopt a friendly attitude expressed in sincere and simple terms
2. To express opinions tactfully
3. To mention all necessary facts on details
4. To express thoughts with clarity
5. To use descriptive detail for vividness
6. To write about topics of interest to the recipient, rather than exclusively about one's self

Language Techniques:

1. To write in complete sentences
2. to employ occasionally, for clarity, variety, and economy, the following devices:
    a. Adverbial modifiers at beginning of sentences
    b. Compound predicates

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[1] W. Wilbur Hatfield, An Experience Curriculum in English, Monograph No. 4, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, pp. 211-212

c. Adverbs or adverbial clauses in the predicate position

d. Exclamations

e. Direct discourse

f. Relative clauses

3. To paragraph properly

4. To punctuate direct quotations properly

5. To use commas to set off yes and no, and nouns in direct address

6. To use apostrophes to indicate contractions, and for nouns in the possessive singular

7. To capitalize words beginning sentences, proper nouns, titles that are part of names, the pronoun I, and the titles of books

8. To spell correctly

9. To write neatly and legibly

10. To follow convention in the choice of ink and stationery, in the arrangement of the parts of the letter, including the superscription, in leaving margins, and in folding the letter

UNIT II. BUSINESS LETTERS

This is a sample unit of work following the outline

suggested by Dr. Billett[1] of Boston University.

I. The Unit - Writing Business Letters

Writing letters is an actual experience between persons. One conveys his ideas through writing; therefore, a business letter should be brief, concise, and clear. A written error is probably more noticeable, because it is more lasting than a spoken error. It is desirable to know the correct technique and the correct courtesies employed in writing business letters.

II. Delimitation of the Unit

1. A business letter should have the following characteristics:
    a. It should be brief, concise, and clear.
    b. It should give specific and definite information.
    c. It should make requests and complaints with courtesy.
    d. It should be correct in form and mechanics of writing -- free from errors in spelling, punctuation,

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[1] Roy O. Billet, Fundamentals of Secondary-School Teaching with Emphasis on the Unit Method, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1940, pp. 504-533

capitalization and grammar.

e. It should be written legibly and neatly, keeping margins and spaces uniform.

f. The stationery should be white or cream paper with matching envelope.

g. Either blue or black ink should be used.

2. A <u>business letter</u> consists of six parts:

a. The <u>heading</u> is the part of a letter which gives the address of the writer and the date.

b. The <u>inside address</u> is the part of a letter which gives the name and address of the person or firm to whom the letter is sent. It may be written in <u>block</u> or <u>indented</u> form.

c. The <u>greeting</u> (or salutation) includes words for opening the letter.

d. The <u>body</u> of a business letter is the main part of the letter. The content of a business letter depends upon the type of business letter:

(1) In <u>writing an order</u> one should include all necessary information about quantities, brands, sizes, colors, prices, catalogue numbers, postage, amount and arrangement for payment and shipping directions.

(2) In <u>making a request</u> or a <u>complaint</u> one should be courteous. His letter should be brief and clear. Facts should be stated accurately.

(3) In <u>answering advertisements</u> for lost property, the answer should be prompt. It should tell where the advertisement appeared and give a clear description of the property found so that the owner will recognize it. It should in itself invite a prompt reply.

(4) In <u>applying for a position</u> one should tell the source of his information about the position. He should briefly state his age, qualifications, and experience. He should be truthful in statements about himself and be neither boastful nor over-modest. He should list references with complete names, addresses and telephone numbers.

(5) <u>Telegrams</u> should give all necessary data -- day, hour, place, names and situations for receiver to understand. The message should be briefly and clearly stated.

(6) A night letter is longer and slower than a

telegram. It is sent at night to be delivered the next morning. The rate for a 50-word letter is the same for a 10-word day telegram.

e. The complimentary close of a business letter includes the words for closing the letter.

f. The signature in a business letter is the name of the person who writes the letter.

3. A business letter is folded for the reader's convenience so that it can be opened easily.

4. The envelope of a business letter should match the letter paper. It should include:

   a. The name and address of the person or firm to whom the letter is going.

   b. The sender's name and address in the upper left hand corner of the envelope.

   c. The addresses may be written in indented or block form, depending

upon the form used in the inside address.

5. Letter should be written with pen and ink or typewritten:

   a. blue or black ink

   b. stationery -- white or cream

   c. unlined paper

III. Incidental and Indirect Learning Products

1. Habits of courtesy and politeness
2. Habits of neatness and punctuality
3. Skills in correct usage, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling

IV. Optional Related Activities

These are projects or activities that the student may engage in through his own interest. His selection of activities is made with the advice and approval of the teacher:

1. Write a business letter to the Educational Department of the U. S. Rubber Company, Box 12, New York City, asking for samples of different kinds of crude rubber, in addition to a small container of latex and materials for conducting two class experiments:

a. extraction of rubber from latex

b. vulcanization process

2. Write a business letter to the Educational Department (same address as above) asking to borrow the motion picture The Romance of Rubber. There is no charge, except for transportation.

3. Write a business letter to one of the town officials inviting him to your school to speak on the town, state, or federal government.

4. Do some activities from reference books[1] for students (Teacher chooses the exercises from the students' reference book, and arranges the activities in order of difficulty to care for individual indifferences.)

V. The Unit Assignment (Time Allotment 12 periods -- 4 weeks with composition 3 times a week.)

Activities:

1. Write a business letter to the Public Relations Board asking permission to visit the rubber footwear plant.

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[1] Recent textbooks listed in Appendix

a. use your home address or school address

b. use today's date in the heading

c. remember the six parts to a business letter

d. fold letter correctly

e. address the envelope correctly.

2. Pretend that your basketball team plans to buy new suits for its members. Write an order to an athletic company using a fictitious name and address. Or bring in a catalogue for the class to use in making an order.

3. Cut out from your local newspaper an advertisement pertaining to some lost article or property. Write a business letter answering the advertisement promptly.

4. Imagine that you are interested in a part-time job. After examining the ads in the local paper, choose one position for which you think you are qualified. Write a letter of application following the rules discussed in class.

5. Imagine that you are away from home camp-

ing with a troop of scouts. Your mother expects you the latter part of the week, but you plan to leave earlier. Send a telegram to your family telling them to meet you at the railroad station. Include necessary information.

6. Bring to class samples of business letters; criticize and discuss in class.
7. Samples of each type of business letter will be reproduced on the board by pupils whose work is outstanding.
8. Rule your paper in rectangles of 3 1/2" x 5 1/2" to represent envelopes. In each rectangle write the correct address. Include your name in the return address. Alternate using block and indented form:
    a. An envelope from 82 blossom street, fitchburg, massachusetts to smith and rogers, 190 north main street, new orleans, louisiana.
    b. An envelope from 309 helen street, salt lake city, utah, to stiles and hammond st louis, missouri.
    c. An envelope from 70 cedar street, providence, rhode island, to

megin and sewall, 439 east ninth street, chicago, illinois

d. An envelope from 105 congress avenue, chelsea, new hampshire, to mrs. ida stockton, 400 lynn road, oxford, connecticut.

9. In the Lost and Found column of the "Evening Sentinel" the following advertisement appeared. Pretend that you found the dog and wish to return it to the owner who lives in your home town. Write a business letter answering the advertisement:

Lost: Brown and white cocker spaniel, family's pet. Reward offered by owner -- Wilfred Barnum, 47 Longhill Road, Dalton, Delaware.

10. Let's discuss:

a. How and when does the inside address help the post office authorities?

b. How does the heading help the person who is answering the letter?

c. When is a period necessary in the heading or inside address?

d. Why are carbon copies of letters kept on file in business offices?

e. What is meant by a business letter being your personal representatives?

f. What is the correct greeting to a woman?

g. How does a married woman sign her name?

h. What is the difference between sending articles C. O. D. and express collect?

i. What is the difference between a telegram and a night letter?

VI. Reference Books for Teachers Only

Books dealing particularly with the teaching of English; these are listed in Appendix.

VII. Reference Books for Students

Recent textbooks listed in Appendix.

VIII. Evaluation

Diagnostic testing is an important part of the unit of work.

A. True – False = Write + if <u>true</u>

Write – if <u>false</u>

( ) 1. Business letters should be written on lined paper.

( ) 2. Essentials of business letter are important because they save a business man confusion and irritation.

( ) 3. The block form is more common than the indented form.

( ) 4. All punctuation is omitted in addressing an envelope.

( ) 5. A night letter is a telegram received at night.

( ) 6. In applying for a position one should be truthful about one's self.

( ) 7. Only the first word of the closing should begin with a capital letter.

( ) 8. A dash (-) follows the complimentary close.

( ) 9. In sending a telegram an extra charge is made for each word over ten.

( ) 10. In a complaint letter one should include every detail.

( ) 11. The heading is the main part of a business letter.

( ) 12. Either blue or black ink should be used.

( ) 13. The correct greeting to a firm is, "My dear Sirs."

( ) 14. In a telegram punctuation marks are charged.

( ) 15. In sending a night letter the rate for a 50-word letter is the same as a 10-word day telegram.

( ) 16. All business letters should be typewritten.

( ) 17. Advertisements should be answered promptly.

( ) 18. A business letter is folded for the reader's convenience.

B. Matching Exercise

Write the numbers of column II. in the proper parentheses.

I.	II.
( ) signature	1. address of writer
( ) body	2. salutation
( ) heading	3. complimentary close
( ) postscript	4. writer
( ) greeting	5. message
( ) inside address	6. receiver
( ) closing	

Indicate the end mark for each item in column II. by placing the numbers in the parentheses of column I.

I.	II.
( ) comma	1. complimentary close
( ) colon	2. greeting
( ) period	3. between town and state
( ) question	4. abbreviations
	5. initials
	6. end of a statement
	7. end of an interrogative

C. Completion Exercise

1. A business letter consists of _____ parts.
2. _____ or _____is the color of the ink to be used.
3. The envelope of a business letter should have the addresses of the _____and _____.
4. C. O. D. means _____ _____ _____.
5. In sending telegrams the word _____ is written to take the place of the period mark.
6. There is a minimum charge of _____

words in sending a telegram.

7. A business letter should be answered _____.

8. In writing orders the sign @ means _____ _____ _____ _____.

9. The _____ is the main part of a business letter.

10. In addressing envelopes two forms may be used, _____ and _____.

11. A period is necessary in the heading where there is an _____ or an _____.

12. A business letter should be brief, _____ and _____.

D. Multiple Choice - check correct answer

1. The inside address is written on the top:

   a. in the middle of the page
   b. to the left of the page
   c. to the right of the page

2. The proper greetings in business letters are:

   a. Dear Gentlemen:
   b. Dear Madam:
   c. Dear Sir:

d. Gentlemen:

e. Dear Baker:

f. My dear Sir:

3. The main part of a business letter to post office officials is the:

a. salutation

b. inside address

c. body

d. heading

e. signature

4. In which type of business letter should one list references:

a. writing and order

b. making a complaint

c. applying for a position

d. answering an ad

e. sending a telegram

f. writing a night letter

5. In sending a telegram indicate by number whether the word or words or numbers are counted as <u>one</u> word, <u>two</u> or <u>no</u> <u>charge</u>:

_____ a. two thousand

_____ b. per cent

_____ c. 6000

_____ d. Tom Brown

_____ e. (punctuation marks - , ? . : ;)

_____ f. C. O. D.

_____ g. O. K.

_____ h. Delaware Railroad

UNIT III. WRITING STORIES

Activities:

1. to write life history of:
   a. Peter Paul candy bar
   b. charcoal chewing gum
   c. rubber boot
   d. safety pin
2. to write briefly of a personal experience
3. to write about an exciting movie seen
4. to write about a favorite radio program
5. to record the happenings of the day in a class diary
6. to record autobiographical incidents in the class history book
7. to write summaries of narrative poems
8. to write the conclusion to a story which the teacher has read to a crucial point
9. to write stories of heroism and adventure

10. to write about hobbies
11. to write descriptions of persons, places, and scenes
12. to write anecdotes

UNIT IV. WRITING REPORTS

Activities:

1. to record the minutes of class meetings
2. to record information of committee meetings
3. to write an announcement for the bulletin board
4. to keep individual or class diaries
5. to make a written report of an interview
6. to take significant notes on simple research to give a report to the class
7. to make an outline of one's report
8. to make a summary of one's report
9. to prepare a bibliography in alphabetical order
10. to report visits, excursions, accidents, parades, and trips
11. to write a character sketch
12. to write news articles for school paper
13. to write reports for school paper
14. to write a book report

a. reports on characters in book which have intrigued the student

b. book reviews

(1) teacher can stimulate writing reviews by bringing to class and reading a short and pertinent newspaper or magazine review of recent books

(2) pupils can review their books in same manner

(3) best reviews can be published in school newspaper

c. book reviews written in the form of a friendly letter -- criticism of plot and characters

d. illustrated reviews in form of notebooks

e. book reports evaluated -- teacher may use an objective test which she has prepared or one which has been published

f. writing of advertisements for books read

g. writing of a scenario for a particular book

h. brief outline of books read, then placed on file for future reference, thus developing the card file in alphabetical order

UNIT V. HELPFUL OPINIONS

Activities:

1. to present a simple argument or opinion to be read in influencing students, teachers, and principal
2. to express opinions through writing labels, titles, and signs
3. to state reasons for one's belief
4. to include questions in the argument or opinion so as to reach a decision
5. to offer criticisms for improvement
6. to express opinions on worthwhile topics:
   a. Should everyone go out for at least one sport?
   b. Is a school newspaper a benefit?
   c. Should students pay class dues?
   d. Should bicycles be allowed at school?

e. Is a student council helpful to the student body?

f. How can homework be improved?

g. Is it easier to study in school or at home?

h. What does it mean to be An American?

i. What is school spirit?

j. What is your idea of Democracy?

UNIT VI. CREATIVE WRITING

Activities:

1. to write original radio scripts for school programs
2. to dramatize an original play or story
3. to write simple lyrics and limericks
4. to write stories and serials for the school newspaper
5. to express an attitude toward some phase of school or home life
6. to write a legend based upon local material
7. to write a biographical sketch of a hero
8. to trace the life history of:
    a. a rubber tire
    b. a bar of candy
    c. a glass tumbler

9. to take an imaginary trip to some country studied

ORAL COMPOSITION

Recognition of the importance and usefulness of oral expression in life suggests that, in general, oral English merits more time and attention than written English because life situations demand more oral expression experiences. For example: making announcements; selling tickets; asking advice; using the telephone; and telling a story are activities that function in life situations.

Objectives of oral composition:

1. to develop the ability to collect, organize, and present material for brief talks and reports in simple, clear, and correct English
2. to participate in conversation, in discussions, and in meetings with regard for the rights of others
3. to secure interest in oral work through wise selection of words
4. to cultivate a natural manner of expression and delivery

Oral composition in the junior high school should emphasize speech. Speech is becoming an integral part of the English curriculum. The teacher should plan her unit assignments in terms of the actual speech needs of the class, with emphasis largely on clear and correct expression of ideas.

The correct forms in usage which appear in a later chapter should correlate with oral composition.

Characteristics and Procedure

In the seventh grade stress should be placed on the ability:

1. to talk for a few minutes on a subject familiar to the pupil
2. to use simple, clear, correct English
3. to participate in class meetings

In the eighth grade stress should be placed on simple, clear English including the ability:

1. to speak interestingly and correctly
2. to discuss a topic
3. to keep to the point

In the ninth grade follow-up work of the seventh and eighth grades should be continued with increasing ability:

1. to speak before a group easily, correctly, and with some force
2. to be able to select a topic with care
3. to organize material effectively
4. to present talks interestingly

Evaluating Oral Composition

All criticisms of class talks should be helpful and constructive. The pupil should be assisted to analyze his particular needs -- keeping a record of defects and trying to improve each time. A true criticism points out that which is good as well as that which detracts from the value of the thing criticized. All suggestions should be offered in a spirit of helpfulness.

SPEECH EXPERIENCES

UNIT I. SOCIAL CONVERSATION

Activities:

1. to conduct an informal classroom conversation:
    a. relating an exciting adventure
    b. describing a hobby
    c. discussing a motion picture or a radio program
    d. narrating a humorous anecdote
    e. commenting on people
2. to practice social courtesies:
    a. making social calls
    b. making social introductions
    c. accepting or rejecting an invitation
    d. apologizing for a mistake
    e. answering the doorbell

f. returning a borrowed object

g. expressing thanks for a gift or a favor

h. offering congratulations or sympathy

i. taking leave gracefully of a person or a group

3. to share experiences:

a. discussing school athletics, school paper, socials

b. entertaining others

c. discussing current topics

4. to listen intelligently and actively to others

5. to imitate some good points noticed:

a. soft tones

b. clear, distinct enunciation

c. pronunciation

d. phrasing

e. emphasis

6. to tell anecdotes and stories

7. to conduct conversations

8. to conduct a dialogue between characters taken from two books

UNIT II. TELEPHONE CONVERSATION

Activities:

1. to conduct informal discussions on the correct use of the telephone for social and business purposes
2. to discuss telephone courtesy
3. to use telephone in:
    a. ordering the family grocery
    b. calling home to ask permission to go to the movies
    c. inviting a friend to a party
    d. giving a lesson to a friend who has been ill
    e. calling the railway ticket office and asking about train schedule
    f. making an appointment with the dentist
4. to converse by phone in which several books are mentioned and discussed briefly

UNIT III. DISCUSSION

Activities:

1. to discuss plans for classroom activities
    a. planning for visits to:

(1) museum

(2) library

(3) bakery

(4) candy factory

(5) rubber factory

(6) glass factory

(7) foundry

(8) paper mill

b. organizing class and assembly programs

2. to instruct and discuss use of the library

3. to discuss by using illustrations and demonstrations:

   a. bandaging a broken arm

   b. weaving on an Indian loom

4. to criticize a play or dramatization to be presented for class assembly

5. to express one's opinion concerning a problem in class

6. to stimulate discussion by asking intelligent questions

7. to listen actively

8. to discuss problems concerning student council

9. to pretend to be a book salesman, trying

to sell a book on its literary merits

UNIT IV. CLUB ACTIVITIES

Activities:

1. to draft a simple code to conduct class meetings, for example:
    a. chairman calls the class to order
    b. a member makes a motion
    c. another member seconds the motion
    d. chairman states the motion
    e. a discussion follows
    f. question is put to a vote
    g. chairman reports the results
2. to read the minutes of class meetings
3. to read the minutes of committee meetings
4. to discuss intelligently the question before the group
5. to listen actively
6. to criticize in a spirit of helpfulness

UNIT V. INTERVIEWS

Activities:

1. to arrange for a trip to U. S. Rubber Co.
    a. committee sent to interview
    b. report to the class

2. to ask important direct questions, so as to bring back desired information
3. to be courteous at all times
4. to introduce the person being interviewed
5. to interview a student or teacher who has traveled
6. to pretend to be an author interviewed by a student
7. to confer with teacher or principal concerning a problem

UNIT VI. CHORAL READING

Choral speaking is still practically an unknown art in the United States.[1] Twenty-two years ago John Masefield, Poet Laureate of England, made a casual remark which gave impetus to start the modern movement of choral speaking in the British Isles. Marjorie Gullan, inspired by Masefield, founded the London Speech Institute. Choral speaking is a good way to impart training in speech. Teachers have reported that stutterers never stutter when taking part in choral reading. This work should be started in the early years to develop the correct speech habits. The ideal situation is to devote ten

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[1] Agnes C. Hamm, Choral Speaking Technique, The Tower Press, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 1946, pp. 1-3

or fifteen minutes a day to choral speaking in all grades

Poetry is introduced in a fascinating way through choral speaking. It becomes a live activity when it is understood and interpreted orally. There is a better appreciation of poetry through experience in choral reading; there is a contagion of interest and a sharing of poetic experiences, for it is a social activity.

Values from Choral Reading

1. improved speech
    a. develops good habits of speaking
    b. develops correct breathing
    c. develops phrasing to produce pleasing tone
2. group cooperation
    a. encourages shy child
    b. develops self-confidence
    c. develops poise
3. appreciation of poetry
    a. develops understanding of poetic form
    b. brings poetry to life for its beauty
4. personality and character development
    a. develops individual's imagination and sympathy

b. develops self-expression

5. social understanding

a. vivifies social and historic understanding

b. develops understanding of the past

c. develops appreciation of contributions of man

Not all material is appropriate for choral reading. Poems and sonnets that express personal feelings should be omitted. Include:

1. poetry and prose that express group feelings
2. patriotic poems
3. jingles and ballads

In organizing a choral reading group the students should be divided into choruses depending upon their pitch or the tonal quality of their voices:

Four choruses

1. girls with high or light voices
2. those with lower or dark voices
3. boys with higher voices
4. those with deeper voices

Three choruses -- all boys or all girls

1. high or light
2. middle
3. low or dark

Types of choric speech[1]

1. Refrain
   a. soloist carries the narrative and the group responds with unison refrain
   b. ballads lend themselves well to refrain interpretation
2. Antiphonal
   a. two-part reading:
      (1) light and dark voices according to pitch or
      (2) boys against girls
   b. question and answer poems
   c. "The Beatitudes" suggest two-part arrangement
3. Line-a-child or Sequential
   a. one person or one group speaks at a time
   b. "Common Things" suggests this arrangement
4. Part Speaking
   a. voices arranged or classified into

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[1] Louise Abney, Choral Speaking Arrangements for the Junior High, Expression Company, Boston, 1939, pp. 22-30

high, middle and low or

b. light voices and dark voices

5. Unison Speaking

a. many voices to speak as one

b. this is the most difficult type

PIRATE DON DURK OF DOWDEE

Mildred Plew Marrymen

All. Ho, for the Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee!
Boys. He was as wicked as wicked could be,
Girls. But oh, he was perfectly gorgeous to see!
All. The Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee.

All. His conscience, of course, was as black as a bat
Girls. But he had a floppety plume on his hat
And when he went walking it jiggled like that!
All. The plume of the Pirate Dowdee.

Girls. His coat it was crimson and cut with a slash,
Boys. And often as ever he twirled his mustache,
Girls. Deep down in the ocean the mermaids went splash,
All. Because of Don Durk of Dowdee.

Girls. Moreover Dowdee had a purple tattoo,
Boys. And stuck in his belt where he buckled it through
Were a dagger, a dirk and a quizzamaroo
All. For fierce was the Pirate Dowdee.

Girls. So fearful he was he would shoot at a puff,
Boys. And always at sea when the weather grew rough
He drank from a bottle and wrote on his cuff,
All. Did Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee.

Boys. Oh, he had a cutlass that swung at his thigh
Girls. And he had a parrot called Popperskin Pye,
Boys. And a sizzsaggy scar at the end of his eye
All. Had Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee.

Boys. He kept in a cavern this buccaneer bold,
A curious chest that was covered with mould

Girls. And all of his pockets were jingly with gold!
All. Oh, jing! went the gold of Dowdee.

Boys. His conscience, of course, it was crook'd like a squash
Girls. But both of his boots made a slickery slosh,
Boys. And he went through the world with a wonderful swash,
All. Did Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee.

Selections for Choral Reading[1]

Abney	Common Things
Anonymous	The Two Sisters
The Bible	Psalm XXIII
The Bible	Psalm XXIV
The Bible	Psalm XLVI
Binet	Thirteen Sisters
Carman	A Vagabond Song
Carroll	Father William
Carroll	The Walrus and the Carpenter
Cheney	The Kitchen Clock
Guiterman	The Flying Dutchman of the Tappan Zee
Hicks	Three Pieces on Night Over the City
Keats	The Naughty Boy
Kipling	The Ballad of East and West
Lincoln	Lincoln's Gettysburg Address

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[1] Helen G. Hicks, The Reading Chorus, Noble and Noble Publishers, Inc., 1939

Lindsay	Abraham Lincoln Walks at Midnight
Lindsay	The Congo
Lindsay	The Potatoes' Dance
Longfellow	Hiawatha (adapted as a choric drama by A. C. Hamm)
Marryman	Pirate Don Durk of Dowdee
Markham	The Man With the Hoe
Markham	Lincoln, the Man of the People
Masefield	Sea Fever
Millay	God's World
Morgan	Work
Noyes	The Highwayman
Poe	The Bells
Sandburg	California
Sandburg	The Quaker's Wooing
Sandburg	Prayers of Steel
Techewanow	The Sleigh
Wilkinson	A Chant Out of Doors

Reference books for teachers

Abney, Louis, Choral Speaking Arrangements for Junior High, Expression Company, Boston, 1939

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CHAPTER VII

MECHANICS OF EXPRESSION

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MECHANICS OF EXPRESSION

UNIT I. GRAMMAR

Grammar, more than any other phase of mechanics, has been subjected to careful scrutiny. The chief emphasis in language instruction up to the present day, has been placed on form, not content or attitude. The teaching of English consisted of formalized grammatical and rhetorical instruction, which was a carry-over of the Latin Gramma School. In fact the grammar school derived its name from the chief item of subject matter in the curriculum -- grammar!

Too often the teacher of English is not constructive, but analytical. Instead of doing something interesting by means of grammar, the pupils are asked to pull the language to pieces. Instead of seeing it as a moving, purposeful whole, pupils regard it as meaningless, abstract rules; because they are forced to memorize rules, analyze sentences, and diagram long involved sentences!

In An Experience Curriculum in English,[1] grammar is eliminated as a separate phase of the English curriculum. It

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[1] W. Wilbur Hatfield, An Experience Curriculum in English, Monograph 4, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York 1935, pp. 228-229

is taught not only for but through use.

English teachers over a period of fifty years have changed their views concerning the place and function of grammar in the school curriculum. In 1894 the Committee of Ten[1] reported its views as follows:

> The teaching of formal grammar should aim principally to enable the pupil:
> 1. to recognize the parts of speech
> 2. to analyze sentences both as to structure and as to syntax

By means of contrast the Committee of Junior High School English[2] recommended that "grammar should be taught not as an end in itself but as an aid to composition."

Practically every committee report issued since 1913 has stressed functional grammar rather than structural grammar. The use of grammar in the correction of common errors is considerably more important in current thinking than it was in the days of the Committee of Ten. The writer has examined recent textbooks[3] to show the change in teachers' attitudes toward the mechanics of expression including grammar. Recent textbooks are much more functional than those of the past.

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[1] Report of the Committee of Ten, National Education Association, The American Book Company, New York, 1894, p. 89

[2] Report of the Committee of Junior High School English, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1927, p. 145

[3] Listed in Appendix

They correlate grammar with composition making it a functional activity related to students' needs and interests.

The aim of functional grammar is the process of building better sentences and more coherent paragraphs.[1] In dealing with various elements of the sentence, the student will gain concepts of elements. As these concepts emerge, the teacher applies to them simple grammatical terminology, so that the pupil may use labels which will be convenient on future occasions. For example, in reading a description of Tom Sawyer, the teacher asks the pupils for colorful words which describe Tom. These descriptive words, the teacher tells them, are adjectives. No definitions are given. The students learn by handling of a sentence element just as they developed concepts and learned the words -- janitor, museum, honesty. Such a presentation of grammar is informal; it is <u>incidental</u> to and <u>instrumental</u> in the improvement of sentences. Grammar so taught is certain to be practical, because it is learned not merely <u>for use</u> but <u>in use</u>. It should not be taught separately, except in drilling.

Research into the nature and usefulness of systematic grammar has brought under grave suspicion the grammar teaching program so prevalent in American schools. In the Ninth

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[1] Hatfield, <u>op</u>. <u>cit</u>., p. 230

Yearbook,[1] the following charges are listed against formal grammar:

1. Grammar has no special mental or discipline value.
2. Knowledge of English grammar contributes little to the learning of a foreign language.
3. Knowledge of grammar is rarely needed in reading.
4. Traditional school grammar contains many items which, even if learned, could not have any conceivable effect upon the learner's language.
5. Grammarians have manufactured rules and laws which have no basis in acceptable speech and writing.
6. There is no closer correlation between knowledge of formal grammar and applied grammar than between any two of the high school subjects.

The experimental study by Segal and Barr[2] determined the

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[1] Marquis E. Shattuck, The Development of a Modern Program in English, Ninth Yearbook, The Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Washington, D. C., 1936, pp. 151-3

[2] David Segal and Nora Barr, "Relation of Achievement in Formal Grammar to Achievement in Applied Grammar," Journal of Educational Research, 14:401-402, December, 1926

relationship of achievement in formal grammar to achievement in applied grammar. Two tests, one on formal grammar, the other on applied grammar were given to more than 1000 sophomore and junior high school students in Long Beach, California. The results of their study show that formal grammar has no immediate transfer value so far as applied English grammar is concerned.

Another study to determine the influence of the study of grammar upon composition ability was made by Rapeer.[1] His study proved that grammar seems to be of slight value as an aid to composition. This may be due, however, to the manner in which grammar has been taught. Nevertheless, the correlation between grammar and composition ability of ninth grade pupils in Minneapolis, as determined by Rapeer was only + .23.

In his doctorate on Functional Grammar, Rivlin[2] lists all the items of grammar and the functions of each. Function, as used in this connection, may be defined as "that application of the knowledge of a grammatical item which will prevent the commission of an error in English or which will assist in the correction of an error already made." Almost all the items of

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[1] Louis W. Rapeer, "The Problem of Formal Grammar in Elementary Education," Journal of Educational Psychology, 4:125-127, March, 1913

[2] Harry N. Rivlin, Functional Grammar, No. 435, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1930, p. 61

grammar which he lists have been rated by leading professors.[1]

Diagramming was rated by the experts as having some functional value, perhaps as a graph in making the sentence relation clearer. It should not be taught for its own sake; it should be taught as a means of showing the relationship of different parts of a sentence. Many pupils are visual-minded and diagramming is probably the only aid to them in understanding sentence parts.

Authorities agree that there are three areas in which there is difficulty with forms of the pronouns:

1. with forms of the verb to be
2. with relative pronouns who, whom
3. with pronoun one and other indefinite pronouns

These forms are of functional value to students, therefore, they should be taught and drilled upon, correlating them with composition and correct usage. The aim in the seventh and eighth grades is to develop concepts and understandings so pupils will recognize and produce good sentences. Upon this foundation the work of grammar in the high school is based. Too often a dislike for grammar is developed by attempting to teach too early material which would later be understood with little difficulty.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 61-80

A diagnostic test based on grammar items of the grade should be administered at the beginning of each year and throughout the year to determine the remedial and corrective work necessary.

Suggested Procedures:

1. diagnostic testing
2. check on frequency of errors in written and oral composition
3. group drill on correct grammatical functions
4. correlation of grammar with composition
5. individual instruction
6. evaluation -- rechecking -- appraisal

Research studies and current practice expressed in monographs by National Council of Teachers of English, in yearbooks, bulletins, and journals, agree that grammar should begin with the development of such concepts or elements as name words and limiting words without reference to grammatical terminology or rules. Pupils in intermediate grades can understand such concepts for they have had experiences with them in reading as well as oral language usage. When such concepts have been established then the technical term can be used; thus, a name word becomes a noun, a limiting word becomes an adjective, etc.

After understandings and concepts have been developed, the teacher should provide necessary drills and application

in written and oral composition. Dr. Gunn's[1] technique through drill exercises in correctness, reading, and vocabulary, reports improvement in the basic skills as reflected in improved scores on standardized tests made by students in

The minimum essentials in grammar which follow are based upon the development of sentence concepts:[2]

1. complete - sentence concept
2. subject - element concept
3. predicate - element concept
4. modification - element concept
5. connective - element concept

MINIMUM ESSENTIALS IN GRAMMAR

Grade Seven

Concepts based on Simple Sentence

Complete - sentence Concept

1. concept of a sentence and a fragment; importance of the framework of a sentence

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[1] Mary A. Gunn, "A Technique for Improving Basic Skills in English in High School," University of Iowa Studies, Volume 8, No. 7, 1934

[2] Paul Leonard, "Functional Grammar-What and Where?", The English Journal, 22:729-735, November, 1933

2. recognition of a sentence as a complete thought; difference between complete thought and a fragment
3. ability to write and speak in complete sentences; drill on certain word usage to establish correct habits
4. ability to recognize kinds of expressions according to their use and meaning; avoid classification or rules

Subject - element Concept

1. concept of two parts to a sentence -- subject and predicate
2. concept of subject and its function
3. understanding the relationship between subject and predicate
4. concept of noun as name words
5. concept of adjective as limiting words
6. no classification of nouns as common, abstract, proper
7. ability to vary sentence construction -- verb first, subject last

Predicate - element concept

1. concept of two parts to a sentence -- subject and predicate
2. concept of predicate and its function

3. recognition of such words as: is, was, were, am, will be, etc., as part of predicate
4. developing correct usage through repetition and imitation
5. ability to add color and action to the predicate -- scampered, hastened, spurted, bustled instead of ran

Modification - element concept

1. concpet of adjective as limiting work; its its effect on the subject
2. ability to add color to the sentence through the use of limiting words

Connective - element concept

1. concept of conjunctions as connecting words
   a. no classification
   b. its effect on the sentence

Grade Eight

Concepts based on Compound and Complex Sentences

Review work of Seventh Grade

Complete - sentence concept

1. concept of a compound sentence; difference between simple and compound sentences
2. concept of a complex sentences; difference

between compound and complex sentences

3. recognition of complete thoughts in both compound and complex sentences

4. ability to recognize:

    a. commands

    b. statements

    c. questions

    d. exclamations

Subject - element concept

1. concept of compound subject; difference between simple and compound subjects

2. understanding the transposed subjects and predicate; its effect upon thought

3. recognizing name words as nouns

4. concept of pronouns

    a. recognition of pronouns

    b. its function

    c. develop correct usage through repetition

5. recognizing the effect of adjectives on the subject

Predicate - element concept

1. concept of compound predicate; difference between simple and compound predicates

2. concept of verb

a. its function

b. its relationship to the noun

3. developing correct speaking and writing habits of verbs -- see, do, break, etc.

Modification - element concept

1. understanding the function of adjectives
2. ability to use adjectives in sentences to show color in writing
3. concept of an adverb
   a. recognizing adverbs
   b. its effect in the sentence
4. concept of a preposition

Connective - element concept

1. recognizing conjunctions as connecting words in
   a. compound subject
   b. compound predicate
   c. compound sentences
   d. complex sentences
2. recognizing common connectives: and, but, or
3. its effect on sentence when omitted

Grade Nine

Concepts based on Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

Review work of Seventh and Eight Grades

Complete - sentence concept

1. recognition of three kinds of sentences according to form
    a. simple
    b. compound
    c. complex
2. recognition of four kinds of sentences according to their use
    a. declarative
    b. imperative
    c. interrogative
    d. exclamatory
3. understanding that the subject may not always be stated, as in commands
4. division of complete sentences into two parts
    a. complete subject, complete predicate
    b. simple subject, simple predicate

Subject - element concept

1. recognition of complete subject in each type of sentence
2. recognition of complete subject in sentences
    a. normal and reversed positions

b. recognize subject when not stated as in a command or a request

3. recognition of simple subject in sentences

4. single-word subject

a. Noun

(1) recognition of nouns

(2) proper nouns

(3) number

(a) singular

(b) formation of plurals

b. Pronouns

(1) concept of pronoun

(2) recognition of pronouns

(3) correct use of pronouns as subject of sentence

(4) antecedent of pronoun

(a) concept of antecedent

(b) agreement with antecedent in person, number, gender

(5) changes in forms of pronouns for plural

number and for different genders

Predicate - element concept

1. recognition of complete predicate in each type of sentence
2. recognition of complete predicate in sentences; normal and reversed positions
3. recognition of simple predicate or verb in sentences
4. concept of verb
    a. recognition of subject and verb and its relationship
    b. agreement in number
    c. formation of plurals of verbs
5. developing correct usage of irregular verbs through repetition and drill

Modification - element concept

1. adjectives
    a. recognition and understanding of uses in sentences
    b. comparison of most frequently used adjectives
    c. position of adjectives
        (1) near the word it explains or

(2) may be placed in the predicate

2. adverbs
    a. recognition and understanding of uses in sentences
    b. its relationship to verbs, adjectives, and adverbs
3. phrases
    a. concept of a phrase
    b. difference between a phrase and a sentence
    c. its effect on the sentence
4. clauses
    a. concept of a clause
    b. difference between a phrase and a clause
    c. its effect on the sentence

Connective - element concept

1. review previous connectives taught
2. recognition of connectives connecting words, phrases, clauses

UNIT II. CORRECT USAGE

Usage consists of methods and principles; it is to a great extent established, a customary mode of speech, and, in

the opinion of many thoughtful people, it should somehow be sanctioned by reputable authorities.[1] Even then it is difficult for authorities to agree.

Usage is the practice of the art of speaking and writing. The term is not synonomous with grammar; however, usage employs matters of grammar, punctuation, spelling and choice of words.

Language is merely a convenient set of practices and is successful only so far as it is appropriate to the purpose of the speaker and writer and comfortable to the listener. Good usage is the usage of the best writers and speakers.

What will determine what is correct or incorrect? Correctness in English usage must be determined by these criteria:[2]

1. Correct usage must find its authority in the living language of today.
2. It must recognize dialect and geographical variations.
3. It must judge the appropriateness of the expression to the purpose intended.
4. It must recognize social levels of speech.

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[1] Arthur G. Kennedy, English Usage, Monograph No. 15, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1942, p. 2

[2] W. Wilbur Hatfield, An Experience Curriculum in English, Monograph No. 4, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1935, p. 242

5. It must take into account the historical development of the language.

In the fourth criterion, it must recognize social levels of speech; there are three levels of acceptance:

1. formal literary English. It is the language of written English. The expression of thinking in written form is more permanent than the informal language. He hesitates to say It is me, he watches the correct use of who and whom, he hesitates to split the infinitive and he avoids slang.
2. good colloquial speech. It is usually oral rather than written language; it is confined to informal talking. He uses slang and idiomatic expressions. His sentences are cut down to phrases and interjections.
3. illiterate language. It is marked by slovenliness in punctuation, pronunciation, and oral language. He uses, me and her seen 'em.

Arthur Kennedy adds another level of speech, cant and slang,[1] which does not constitute a language. It is a vocabulary coined by some people who desire a change, similar

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[1] Kennedy, op. cit., p. 64

to the boy who uses pig Latin to disguise his thoughts. Cant[1] is the dialect of thieves, gypsies, or beggars. Slang is twisted words; sometimes it is attractive and colorful in its figurative appeal.

Developing good speech habits is the basis of correct usage. It is mainly a habit of observation, repetition, practice, and experience in applying these correct forms in writing and speaking. Direct attack upon specific usage through the medium of drill exercises and in connection with written and oral composition will establish good speech habits.

To attack errors in language usage the following procedure is suggested:

1. Observe pupils' speech and writing habits
2. Test to discover whether pupils know what the correct usage is
3. Explain through offering many examples rather than stating rules or principles
4. Allow pupils to observe, to repeat and to imitate the correct form in drill and in sentences
5. Offer opportunity for pupils to criticize each other in oral and written work
6. Encourage correct usage as an aid in

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[1] Funk and Wagnells, New Standard Dictionary, 1942

speaking and writing

7. Evaluate the progress through testing
8. Observe carefully the pupils' speech and writing again, to see if good habits are being established.

Language is not something final and static. It is the organized description of actual speech habits of educated men. If these habits change, language changes and textbooks must change. Teachers should keep abreast with these changes.

In teaching correct English it is necessary that the teacher take a positive attitude through emphasis on interesting activities as a means to an end. Too often the elimination of errors has become an end in itself. The pupils should be shown that good speech habits aid in one's speaking and writing.

It is the teacher's problem, then to create an attitude of willingness among her students to accept the "correct" standards, and to provide opportunity for drill and practice of these forms until they become a habitual part of their communication.

The correct forms which follow are based upon current usage established by reputable authorities.[1]

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[1] A. Marchward and F. Walcott, Facts About Current English Usage, Monograph No. 7, National Council of Teachers of English, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1938

Correct Forms to be Established

Grade Seven - correct usage leads to better communication

Use of Verbs

1. Mary and Helen are, were, have, do
2. She doesn't; he doesn't; it doesn't
3. One of the houses is mine. (not are)
4. Some of the girls are, were, have
5. There were two pens on the desk.
6. On the table were some books.
7. Let me come in. (not leave)
8. Leave the coat here. (not let)
9. Our mothers teach us to sew.
10. We can learn from our mothers.
11. Aren't you going? (not ain't)
12. You are; you were (not was)
13. There are (not they is or is they)
14. Could, should or might have (not might of)
15. Principal parts of verbs: break, freeze, steal, speak, tear, wear, begin, drink swim, teach
16. He ought to go; He ought not to go.
17. Charles didn't have any money. (not no money
18. Shall I go with you? (not will I)

19. Correct spelling of contractions: aren't, you're, I'm, who's, can't, etc.
    Who's going to the movies?
20. Correct use of verbs:

In list "A" the word alone indicates past tense.
In list "B" some form of have or be should be used.

A	B
began	begun
broke	broken
came	come
did	done
drank	drunk
gave	given
knew	known
ran	run
swam	swum
saw	seen
sang	sung
sat	sat
spoke	spoken
took	taken
went	gone
wrote	written

Use of Pronouns

1. My friend and I (not me and my friend)
2. Himself and themselves and you (not hisself and theirselves and youse)
3. Who for persons; which for objects
   The boys who went. (not what)
4. My brother said (not my brother he said)
5. Correct spelling of pronouns: ours, yours, its, theirs, whose
   Whose dog is it? (not who's dog)
6. Those are the books I ordered. (not them)
7. The girls invited you and me. (not you and I)
8. We boys went to the game. (not us boys)

Use of Adjectives

1. Those people; these people (not them people or them these people)
2. Use this, that, these, those alone (not this here, those there)
3. I feel bad about it. (not badly)
4. A book; a cow; an apple; an egg
5. It is worse now. (not worser)
   It is better now. (not more better)
6. More beautiful (not beautifuler or more

beautifuler)

Use of Adverbs

1. She is very pretty. (not real pretty)
2. John speaks well. (not good)
3. It is too hot inside. (not to or two)
4. She placed the book there. (not their)
5. Avoid the double negative in a sentence:
   I don't like to walk in the dark. (not I don't hardly)
   He has hardly scored in the game. (not hasn't hardly)

Use of Nouns

1. Spelling of possessive singular nouns:
   boy's coat Mary's cat
   mother's cake moon's light
2. Nouns ending in "y" preceded by a consonant form their plurals:
   cherry - cherries
   story - stories
3. Nouns ending in "y" preceded by a vowel form their plurals:
   turkey - turkeys
   chimney - chimneys

4. Plurals of common nouns

church - churches

cross - crosses

hero - heroes

cart - carts

calf - calves, etc.

Use of Prepositions

1. She visited at (not by) her sister's.
2. They bought the books from the dealer. (not off of)
3. Is your mother at (not to) home?

Use of Conjunctions

1. Do as (not like) I say.
2. She talks as if (not like)
3. Avoid overuse of so, and, but to join clauses.

Grade Eight - correct usage is important to communication

The correct forms established in the seventh grade are to be repeated, drilled and applied in writing and speaking throughout the eighth grade, depending upon the individual and group needs. The following correct forms should be added:

Use of Verbs

1. He doesn't; she doesn't; it doesn't
2. Agreement of verb with: each, every, either, somebody, someone, anybody, anyone, everybody, everyone, no one, nobody, and a person.
   Either of the girls plays well.
3. He said (not says) to me.
4. He asked (not ask or ast).
5. Correct use of verbs: lie, lay; set, sit; accept, except; loose, lose; affect, effect
   She is lying down now.
   John, please lay it on the bed.
   I will set the table.
   Sit down and help me.
   He would not accept a cent.
   Everyone is going except Mary.
   This skirt is too loose.
   Did you lose the game?
   What affects it to wear out?
   It will have a good effect upon him.
6. Correct use of verbs:

In list "A" the word alone indicates past tense.
In list "B" some form of have or be should be used.

A	B
ate	eaten

A	B
fell	fallen
lay	lain
flew	flown
burst	burst
drove	driven
slept	slept
grew	grown
rose	risen
threw	thrown
tore	torn
froze	frozen
beat	beaten
stole	stolen
climbed	climbed
brought	brought
drowned	drowned

7. Agreement of a verb with compound subject joined by <u>or</u> or <u>nor</u>:

   Neither Mary <u>nor</u> Helen <u>uses</u> the car.

   Either John <u>or</u> Jack <u>sings</u> well.

8. Agreement of a verb with compound subject joined by <u>and</u>:

   Both my sister <u>and</u> I <u>were</u> chosen to go.

9. Agreement of a verb with such words as news, mathematics, civics, measles, or two-thirds:

   Mathematics is difficult for John.

   News is valuable during the war.

   Civics is a lively subject.

Use of Pronouns

1. Here is the dress which (not what) you asked for.
2. Use who for persons.

   Henry saw a girl who (not which) looked liked my cousin.

   Use which for animals and things.

   Use that for persons, animals, and things.
3. Correct use of who and whom:

   We do not know who is coming.

   With whom are you going?
4. Correct use of personal pronouns:

   Helen and I were invited.

   Grace invited Helen and me.

Use of Adjectives

1. Correct use of adjectives in comparisons:

   worse not worser

worst not baddest

better not more better

cheaper not more cheaper

easiest not most easiest

most beautiful not most beautifulest

2. Avoid using them to modify a noun

   Those (not them) dresses are colorful.

3. The rose smells sweet. (not sweetly)

4. Avoid use of trite words as: nice, awful, fine, great

5. Avoid use of slang:

   not some hat but attractive hat

   not swell dancer but agile dancer

Use of Adverbs

1. Correct use of adverbs:

   She plays well. (not good)

   Jack speaks easily. (not easy)

   Helen surely ran fast. (not sure)

   He plays tennis badly. (not bad)

2. Avoid the negative with: scarcely, hardly, only.

   I have hardly any money. (not haven't hardly)

3. He almost always gives her a gift. (not most)

4. She is <u>somewhat</u> better today. (not <u>some</u>)

<u>Use of Nouns</u>

1. Spelling of possessive singular nouns:

   child's hat school's team

   John's sled lady's dress

2. Spelling of possessive <u>plural</u> nouns:

   children's hats schools' teams

   boys' sleds ladies' dresses

3. Nouns ending in "y" preceded by a consonant form their plurals:

   symphony - symphonies

   company - companies

   harmony - harmonies

   lady - ladies

4. Nouns ending in "y" preceded by a vowel form their plurals:

   valley - valleys

   chimney - chimneys

   monkey - monkeys

   donkey - donkeys

5. Nouns ending in "f" or "fe" form their plurals:

   calf - calves

   shelf - shelves

leaf - leaves

thief - thieves

6. Nouns ending in "o" form their plurals:

hero - heroes

potato - potatoes

motto - mottoes

echo - echoes

7. Nouns ending in "s", "sh", "ch", "x", or "z" form their plurals:

cross - crosses

buzz - buzzes

church - churches

bush - bushes

8. Some nouns form their plural irregularly:

woman - women

foot - feet

ox - oxen

sheep - sheep

deer - deer

Use of Prepositions

1. Your work is different from mine. (not than)
2. We shared the cake among us four. (not between)

3. We shared the cake between us two. (not among)
4. The girl looked behind the trunk. (not in back of)
5. The man jumped into the water. (not in)
6. The man was in the house (not into)
7. Because of the snowstorm the trip was cancelled. (not due to)
8. John sat beside me. (not besides)

Use of Conjunctions

1. Correct use of conjunctions:

   and means in addition to, also

   but means in spite of

   or indicates a choice

   The test was taken and now we can relax.

   The damage was enormous but no one was hurt.

   You may go to the movies or you may help me.

   He is lighter than I. (not then)

2. Correct use of conjunctions in pairs:

   neither - nor

   either - or

   both - and

   not only - but also

   Neither Mary nor I is going.

You may choose to stay either now or later.

Both the class and the teacher enjoyed my anecdote.

He not only sings well but also plays well.

Grade Nine - correct usage tends to produce exactness in thinking

The work of the ninth grade consists of review of the correct forms in Grades Seven and Eight. Diagnostic tests will disclose the weaknesses in the individuals and in the group.

The same technique of drill, repetition, and practice in oral and written expression should be followed to establish correct speech habits. At this level there should be:

1. Mastery of the irregular verbs

In list "A" the word alone indicates past tense.

In list "B" some form of have or be should be used.

A	B
blew	blown
sprang	sprung
mistook	mistaken
woke	wakened
arose	arisen
lost	lost
rode	ridden

A	B
shook	shaken
drew	drawn
wove	woven
laid	laid

2. Mastery of principles suggested in each sentence:

   Each of the girls brought her own lunch.

   Each of the boys sings well.

   Either John or Mary is at home.

   Everybody thought of his work.

   We surely thought he would come.

   I feel bad about the accident.

   I wish I were you.

   She is the smaller of the two.

   He is the smallest on the team.

3. Distinctions should be made in the use of the following pairs:

as - like	between - among
as if - like	in - into
as though - like	its - it's
their - there	your - you're
learn - taught	real - very
leave - let	whose - who's

Suggested Activities:

1. The Error Box

   When pupil hears an incorrect form or sentence, he jots the error and the corrected form on a piece of paper. The names of the maker and recorder of the error are also included. He slips the paper in the Error Box. Once a week the Error Box is opened and a contest is held between two groups. Each team scores as a member corrects an error made by a member of the other team. If a correct form has been reported as an error, that side is penalized.

2. Correction Error Drill Cards

   Drill cards may be based on the incorrect forms found in the Error Box. The front of the card will contain the error, reason and correct form. The back of the card may contain two or three sentences with blanks to be filled out. The sentences should utilize pupil's experiences.

Front of Card

Error:	He ain't coming.
Reason:	Never use ain't.
Correct:	He is not coming. or He isn't coming.

Back of Card

Fill blanks showing <u>not</u> or negative response.
You____go to the theater.
Mary____come home from school.
I____going.
He is certain that____will be there.

3. <u>Demon Chart</u>

   Display a class chart with common errors in speaking and writing made by the class. Beside each error check from day to day the errors made.

4. <u>Never Again</u>

   A notebook kept by each individual of his own errors in usage is an incentive. Errors made in writing and speaking, diagnostic test results, and improvement

may be included.

5. Teacher's List

The teacher may want to keep a list of all the errors heard and written and later compare the error lists of each child or the whole class with the list in the course of study to determine which to attack first.

At the end of the year, after discussing, practicing, and drilling on correct usage, the play called "Alice in Grammarland,"[1] will be enjoyed by the class. It may be presented as an assembly program or P. T. A. program.

UNIT III.

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is the most personal of all phases of usage because it is used to increase clearness and emphasis in the expression of thinking. Therefore, it is flexible and varied. It is as alive as language itself. Punctuation usage is a matter of custom.[2] Writers range from long elaborate sentences broken into many fragments to an almost complete disuse of

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[1] Junior Red Cross News, 1923, p. 30

[2] Lucia B. Mirrielees, Teaching Composition in the High School, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1931, pp. 79-82

marks of punctuation. The following passages illustrate the change in convention:

From Fanny Burney's Evelina (1778)

> I made no answer, but quickening my pace, I walked on silently and sullenly; till this most impetuous of men, snatching my hand, which he grasped with violence, besought me to forgive him, with such earnestness of supplication, that, merely to escape its importunities, I was forced to speak, and, in some manner, to grant the pardon he requested; though it was accorded with a very ill grace; but, indeed, I knew not how to resist the humility of his entreaties; yet never shall I recollect the occasion he gave me of displeasure, without feeling it renewed.

From Edith Wharton's The Children (1928)

> But perhaps it added to the mystery and enchantment that to see her she had to climb from the dull promiscuity of his hotel into a clear green solitude alive with the tremor of water under meadow grasses, and guarded by the great wings of the mountains.

Instead of the long subdivided sentences, briefer statements and shorter thought units are used. Thus punctuation has been simplified. The safest guides for correct usage of punctuation marks are recent books and magazines published by reputable firms.

In written composition punctuation and capitalization are used only as tools to ease the understanding of the writer's thoughts. "It is the art of using marks to help the reader to see with some speed and accuracy, the relations among written ideas."[1]

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[1] Rachael Salisbury, "Psychology of Punctuation," English Journal, 23:796-797, December, 1939

Helen Howard[1] points out that by the end of the ninth grade students had failed to master any of the mechanics of written composition. The lack of mastery of the important principles of English in the junior high is the cause for faulty English in the senior high.

Studies show that punctuation errors are a major part of all composition errors in pupils' work.

Pupils in the junior high school should be given practice material in the mechanics of written expression. They should be taught to punctuate as they write. Backing up[2] should not be permitted, that is, after completing a sentence or a paragraph, "backing up" to insert the punctuation marks.

By the end of the ninth grade habits of correct punctuation should be established through emphasis on application rather than rules -- then it can be followed by continued drill throughout high school.

The following list of punctuation usages should be mastered by the end of the junior high grades.

Period

1. A period is used after a declarative

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[1] Helen Howard, "Errors in Certain Essentials of English Form in Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boston University, Boston, 1936, p. 3

[2] Thomas Blaisdell, Ways to Teaching English, Doubleday, Doran and Company, New York, 1930, pp. 175-9

sentence.

2. A period is used after an imperative sentence.
3. A period is used after an abbreviation that stands for a word as "etc."
    a. not after Miss as in Miss Smith
    b. not after per cent
    c. not after a title of a book, poem, play, or story
    d. not after a signature as at the end of a letter
4. A period is used after initials as A. V. G.

Comma

5. A comma is used to set off words of address.
6. A comma is used to separate words, phrases and clauses in series not connected by conjunctions.
7. Such words as well, no, yes used at the beginning of sentences are set off by commas.
8. Parenthetical expressions, phrases, clauses, or words are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.
9. Words in apposition are set off from the

rest of the sentence by commas.

10. In an address a comma is used to separate the town or city from the state.

11. In dates a comma is used to separate the day from the year.

12. A comma is used after the salutation of a friendly letter.

13. A comma is used after the complimentary close of all letters.

14. Non-restrictive clauses (clauses which may be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence) are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

15. Independent clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions such as <u>and</u>, <u>but</u>, <u>yet</u>, etc., are separated by a comma which is placed before the conjunction.

16. A comma is used to separate a direct quotation from the explanatory words.

17. A comma is used to separate parts of a sentence that might be misread.

18. A comma is used to separate a long dependent clause used at the beginning of a sentence.

Question Mark

19. A question mark is used after a direct question asked.

Exclamation Mark

20. An exclamation mark is used after a sentence that expressed strong or sudden emotion.

Semicolon

21. A semicolon is used to separate independent clauses which are put into one sentence not joined by a conjunction.
    a. When the conjunctive adverbs such as therefore, however, moreover, etc. are included, the semicolon is used.
22. A semicolon is used to separate the independent clauses of a compound sentence joined by a conjunction when there is a comma in any of the clauses.

Colon

23. A colon is used after the salutation of a business letter.
24. A colon is used to introduce a list of items.

25. A colon is used before long or formal quotations.

Quotation Marks

26. When quoting the exact words of anyone else, quotation marks should be put around the quoted words.
27. Single quotation marks are used to enclose a quotation within a quotation.
28. Titles of chapters and poems are usually enclosed (not book titles).

Parentheses

29. Parentheses are used to enclose a side remark which does not affect the main idea of the sentence.
30. Parentheses are used to enclose an explanatory symbol after a word.
    example: two (2) dollars

Apostrophe

31. An apostrophe is used in contractions to mark the omission of letters.
32. An apostrophe is used to form the plurals of figures, letters (9's, E's).

33. The possessive form of singular nouns is formed by adding 's to the singular form of the noun.

34. The possessive form of a plural noun is formed by adding only an apostrophe to the plural form of the noun.

    a. When the plural noun changes its spelling, like women, the possessive plural is formed in the same way that singular nouns do, that is, add 's.

Dash

35. The dash is used to mark an abrupt break in thought.

36. The dash is used to set off a summary statement from a statement preceding it.

Activities and Exercises:

1. Exercises in which the student composes the answer himself and punctuates his own ideas:[1]

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[1] Philip R. Jenkins, "Practical Punctuation," Education, 37:360-364, November, 1937

a. Write a sentence in which you name three books you have read recently.

b. Answer the following questions in the negative, then give additional information about what you did.

(1) Did you close the window?

(2) Were you late for school?

(3) What did you buy for mother?

2. Correcting punctuation in composition work:

a. letters

b. reports

c. minutes of meeting

d. creative work

3. Work sheets to provide drill materials:

a. no rules given

b. pupils are given problem and each formulates the rules from his own observation of correctly punctuated sentences.

c. then pupils are required to write and punctuate original sentences.

d. merits of the work sheets

(1) allows pupil participation

(2) supplies many examples of correct usage

(3) cultivates and stimulates reasoning

(4) develops concepts of understanding

(5) sets up a problem-solving situation

(6) contains functional exercises patterned after child's own expressions

(7) provides many opportunities for applying the rule after once it is formulated by the student himself

Specimen Practice Exercises

I. Study each of the following sentences carefully: In each the same use of the comma is illustrated.

1. Mrs. Smith asked Tom to buy bread, can of peas, and milk.
2. She always does her work neatly, carefully, and painfully.

3. The scouts caught their fish, cleaned them, and cooked them over an open fire.
4. Mary, Helen, and Eva were chosen to be ushers for the evening.
5. On the mountain top Horace heard the rippling of water, the murmur of the breeze, and the song of the birds.
6. The bright yellow, blue, and red flag shown vividly against the pale gray background.
7. They planned to sew, to knit, and to crochet during their club meeting.
8. The car skidded, turned, and crashed into the tree.
9. She had gone with Terry, John, and the rest of the class.
10. From the branches overhead squirrels, birds, and chipmunks looked down.

II. In each sentence above you will find words in series, that is, three items that go together -- <u>white</u>, <u>red</u>, <u>and</u> <u>blue</u>.

1. What word do you find between the last two words in series? Answer _____
2. What part of speech is it? Answer _____
3. Study the punctuation of the sentences. Write a rule which will tell how to

punctuate words in series.

Rule:

III. Some writers omit the comma before the conjunction which joins the last two items of a series. Study the following sentences; see whether you can detect any difference in meaning as a result of the omission of the comma:

1. We ordered fish, vegetables, cake, and coffee.
2. We ordered fish, vegetables, cake and coffee.
3. We ordered fish, cake, vegetables and coffee.

Although the meaning of sentence 2 is clear, some people object to the omission of the comma in sentence 3. What reason can you see for their objection?

Reason:

Conclusion:

IV. Punctuate the following sentences according to the rule written above in II.

1. One Sunday afternoon we picked buttercups

daisies and forget-me-nots in the meadow.

2. John was called to conduct the meeting ask for reports and appoint new committees.
3. The girl scouts worked for health badges needlecraft badges and first-aid badges.
4. He could see from the hilltop the chickens the ducks and the geese in the backyard.
5. She led them over the hill across the bridge and into the center of town.
6. Everyone could see the red white and blue banner waving in the breeze.
7. Mary went to the movies Helen went to visit and Jane decided to go home.
8. You may go camping if you have done your home work if you have helped your father if you have fed the animals.
9. To be honest to be fair and to be a good sport are necessary for good team work.
10. It was fun diving in the cool lake on such a sultry stifling and sweltering afternoon.

V. You have noticed that the above sentences in Section "IV" contain words, phrases, or clauses in <u>series</u>. Below write <u>words</u> if the sentence contains words in series; write <u>phrases</u> if sentence contains phrases in series; write <u>clauses</u> if the sentence contains clauses in series.

1.	6.
2.	7.
3.	8.
4.	9.
5.	10.

VI. From your reading book, newspaper, or magazine copy three sentences to illustrate words, phrases, and clauses in series. Notice if the comma is omitted before the conjunction. If you find such sentences justify the omission of the comma or state a good reason why you would insert a comma.

UNIT IV. CAPITALIZATION

Capitalization, like other phases of mechanics, should be taught as a functional part of written composition. All teaching of grammar, punctuation, and capitalization should be taught with the idea of adding meaning and clearness to the sentence.[1] The chief objective is to lead the pupil to see that symbols assist him in his reading.

The following habits in capitalization should be established in the junior high.

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[1] M. L. Altstetter, "The First Function of English," The English Journal, 33:297-299, June, 1944

1. The first word of every sentence begins with a capital letter.
2. Proper nouns begin with capital letters.
    a. names of days of the week
    b. names of months
    c. names of states, counties, countries, continents, cities, towns
    d. names of persons, races
    e. names of holidays
    f. names of religion or words referring to Deity
3. Proper adjectives begin with capital letters. Spanish class; German town
4. The word president begins with a capital when it refers to President of United States of America.
5. The names of direction begin with capitals when designating parts of the country as the East.
6. The personal titles begin with capitals as: Miss; Dr.; Rev.; Mr.; Mrs.
7. The titles of books begin with capitals except articles, conjunctions, and prepositions unless one stands first in the

title as: Lincoln, the Man of the People

8. The name of a club or organization begins with a capital as: Girl Scouts

9. The name of a company or firm begins with a capital as: Peter Paul Company

10. The names of the departments of government begins with capitals as: Department of the Interior

11. The complete name of a proper noun begins with capitals as: Naugatuck High School; Salem Street

12. The name of a famous building, object, or document begins with capitals as: Lincoln Memorial; Charter Oak Tree; Atlantic Charter

13. The names of certain subjects that also refer to a nationality begin with capitals as: English; French; Italian; German

14. In a divided quotation, the second part of the quotation begins with a capital letter, if a period follows the explanatory words or if it is the proper name of a person or place; or it is the pronoun I.

UNIT V. SPELLING

The aim in teaching spelling in the junior high school is to train young people to write correctly those common words common words which are misspelled. Too often students are exposed to long lists of difficult words. As a result there is little transfer of correct spelling from the lesson to the written work.

There is no one best method of attach of new words. Each student should be encouraged to study independently his spelling errors and to note his progress from day to day. The few demons, however, should be taught by the teacher as class work, placing emphasis on the hard spots. There should be reviewing and testing of those common words which are misspelled until correct habits of spelling are established.

The standards of attainment for each grade are given in the spellers. Ability to spell correctly includes:

1. visualization
2. pronunciation
3. knowledge of meaning
4. word analysis
5. letter sequence
6. ability to write accurately the letters involved

The spelling words should be within the pupil's writing vocabulary; attention should be given to the interests, needs,

and activities of young people. However, the teacher should not depend solely upon incidental teaching in spelling. There should be testing, teaching, and evaluating from time to time.

The ultimate test of success in spelling is its carry-over into writing situations. Since spelling is a matter of habit formation, it is a problem for all teachers not simply the English teacher.

Tests in Spelling

Ashbaugh, E. J., "Iowa Spelling Scales," Public School Publishing Company, 1922, Bloomington, Illinois

A list of approximately 3,000 words arranged in order of difficulty for grades two through eight.

Ayres, L. P., " Measuring Scale for Ability in Spelling," 1915, Russell Sage Foundation, New York

The 1,000 words most frequently used in written English arranged in columns of equal difficulty with norms for each grade.

Buckingham, B. R., "The Buckingham Extension of Ayres Spelling Scales," Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois

A list of the original 1,000 words of the Ayres Scale, plus 505 additional from the words appearing in two or three

out of five commonly used spelling books.

Hudelson, E., Station, F. L., and Woodyard, Ella, 1921, Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York

Sixteen Spelling Scales Standardized in Sentences in Secondary Schools. These scales are intended for use in grades seven through twelve after pupils have mastered such lists as Ayres.

Jones, W. F., "One Hundred Spelling Demons," 1913, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota

(self-explanatory)

Starch, D., "Spelling Scales," 1920, University Cooperative Company, Madison, Wisconsin

The aim is to discover what percentage of all the words in the language a child can spell. Technical, scientific, and obsolete words are discarded.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

I. COURSES OF STUDY

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Long Beach, California..... 1941

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